The Nation.

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The Week.

TREATIES of reciprocity have a natural tendency towards free trade on an enlarging and widening scale. It was for this reason that the treaty of reciprocity with Mexico was favored by the advocates of tariff reform some years ago, and it was for the same reason that it was shelved by the protectionists in the House of Representatives. It is for this reason that reciprocity with Canada, whether on a large or small scale, has been generally favored by the former and generally opposed by the latter in time past and is so now. The arrangement made with Brazil does not carry any such implications for us, because the articles admitted free of duty to our ports are already free independently of the new arrangement. Coffee, the chief article of export from Brazil to this country, has been free of duty for nearly twenty years. On the other hand, there is nothing in the new arrangement to prevent us from putting a duty on coffee or sugar, or any other Brazilian product, if our revenue requirements should make it necessary. The arrangement runs "on and after April 1, 1891," but has no fixed period of continuance. Accordingly, it is terminable by either party upon reasonable notice. It amounts, therefore, to the free admission by Brazil of certain products of this country which are now taxed, and to the admission of certain other articles at a reduction of 25 per cent. on the general Brazilian tariff without any action on our side. There is nothing to prevent Brazil from extending the same advantages to any other country that does now or may hereafter admit her products free of duty. Therefore we cannot say how much advantage we shall gain by the arrangement.

The idea that this country has been losing some $60,000,000 a year by trading with Brazil, which has been sedulously maintained by high public authority at Washington, finds an echo in an interview with one of our merchants published in the *Times* of Friday, in these words:

"In my opinion every product on which the 25 per cent. reduction is made can now be sent profitably to Brazil from America. At present the United States pays Brazil over $70,000,000 annually and only gets $9,000,000 in return. I think that in three years Brazil will be paying us in return for our manufactures and products over $25,000,000 a year, and that great sum will be in active circulation throughout the commercial veins of the country."

According to this calculation, we shall still be $45,000,000 out of pocket each year, and although this will be better than our former plight, we may well ask how long we can stand it. Phrenologists ought to take some steps to find out why the Yankees will go on trading with the Brazilians at such a fearful sacrifice, when there is not a tribe of dwarfs encountered by Stanley in Central Africa, or of full-grown savages by the most enterprising explorer in Borneo or in the bush country of Australia or in the hill country of Thibet, that would continue it six months after their chieftains had shown them that they were losing money by the operation. Mr. Blaine has been promising us a prosperous trade with South America, but if he cannot do better than to cut our losses down from $61,000,000 to $45,000,000 per annum, then thank you for nothing. We lost, according to him, $49,000,000 in 1889 in our trade with Cuba, and, we suppose, had the same ruinous experience last year.

Friday was a very disastrous day for the free-silver-coinage advocates. They were voted down 8 to 4 in the House Committee, and were defeated in their efforts to have their bill made a rider to the Sundry Civil Appropriation Bill. The outlook for the passage of the bill by the House is now more dubious than ever—so dubious, in fact, that Mr. Bland, one of its most strenuous advocates, says he considers the bill as already dead. He made the amusing declaration, on leaving the Committee meeting in high dudgeon, that the bill had been "smothered" by the action of the Committee in allowing delegations from various commercial bodies in all the largest cities of the land to appear and make arguments against it. That is the first time we remember to have heard of a measure being "smothered" by publicity. It is very evident that what is "smothering" it to its death is the aroused intelligence of the country, which is rapidly awakening to a proper sense of the financial disorder which a descent to the silver standard would bring about.

Mr. Michael D. Harter, Congressman-elect from the Fifteenth District of Ohio, has been interviewed on the silver question by the Canton (Ohio) *News-Democrat*. Being asked what would be the effect of free coinage of silver, he said that it would drive $600,000,000 of gold money out of circulation and contract the currency to that extent, and that "this would mean general bankruptcy compared with which 1857 and 1873 were years of prosperity and periods of abundance." Being asked whether free coinage would not be an advantage to some people, he replied that it would be a benefit to all holders of silver bullion, because every person holding 75 cents' worth would wake up and find that he could pay 100 cents of debt with it; but since not more than one man in 10,000 of the population has a silver mine, or any silver bullion, the bill would be the worst kind of class legislation to benefit a few at the expense of the many. Asked, further, if free coinage of silver would not benefit the debtor class, he said that the debtor class consists mainly of the employers of labor, who owe wages to their workmen, while the creditor class consists of the millions who have wages due to them, or deposits in savings banks and in building associations, and life-insurance or other claims payable in money, all of which it is now proposed to scale down from the gold standard to the silver standard, *i. e.*, 20 per cent. Mr. Harter said that he did not know one owner of a silver mine, or one holder of silver bullion, in his district, but he did know of 160,000 men, women, and children who were vitally interested in getting pay for their work and for their claims of every sort at the rate of 100 cents on the dollar, instead of 80 cents. Being asked what would be the effect on the Democratic party if it were identified with free coinage, he said that the party would lose all the Eastern States that it carried last November, and that the free-coinage issue "would not bring into the Democratic column a solitary State in the Union" to make up for those losses. Mr. Harter is a Democrat, a manufacturer, and a tariff-reformer of pronounced views. He was elected to Congress last fall by nearly 3,800 majority in the district where Senator Sherman has his residence. His voice will be heard even more distinctly when he takes his seat in the next House.

The amendment of the Copyright Bill in the Senate is most unfortunate, not only because the change is not an improvement, but because it promises to postpone for possibly two years the national recognition of property in books and the national condemnation of the practice of robbing foreign authors. It is of vast importance to obtain this, even if the form in which it is obtained should be very imperfect. Large numbers of publishers among us justify this practice to their own consciences by the plea that the law does not forbid it. If it were forbidden by law, even by a very poor law, the reign of morality in this particular branch of business would be restored, and the legislation on the subject could receive subsequently any such improvement as experience might call for. It will not do, however, to despair as yet. There is not much time left to pass the bill as last amended, but there is time, and it ought to be diligently used. There is no great interest in the matter in this Congress, but there will certainly be less in the next—a fact worth remembering just now.

The Pension Appropriation Bill was passed in the Senate on Thursday. It appropriates for pensions for the year $133,173,085; for fees and expenses of examining surgeons, $1,500,000; for salaries of eighteen pension agents, $72,000; and for clerk hire, $400,000—a total of more than $135,000,000. During the discussion, Mr. McPherson inquired of Mr. Allison whether the amount appropriated in the bill would be sufficient for the year. Mr. Allison replied that he believed it would be, but admitted that there might be a deficiency of

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five, six, eight, or ten millions. In other words, the expenditures for pensions during the year must reach at least $135,000,000, and may rise to $145,000,000. Nineteen years ago the annual appropriation for pensions fell short of $35,000,000, and General Garfield, as Chairman of the House Committee on Appropriations, said: "We may reasonably expect that the expenditures for pensions will hereafter steadily decrease, unless our legislation should be unwarrantably extravagant."

The rapid progress which the Senate is making in doing the public business since the attempt to pass the Force Bill was dropped shows that there was not the slightest necessity of a "gag rule" for any other purpose than to get that partisan measure through. An attempt was made to cultivate the idea that the Senate must abolish the system of free discussion in order to perform its necessary work, but there was never any sincerity in the claim, and its absurdity is now apparent to everybody. The only effect of the long controversy over this question is that the Senate must work harder from now until the 4th of March than it would have had to do if so much valuable time had not been wasted by the Republican Bourbons.

Senator Ingalls's speech explaining his attitude toward the Force Bill was chiefly remarkable for the attack which he made in it upon Messrs. Reed, McKinley, and Lodge. These three Republican leaders have been especially free in their censure of Mr. Ingalls because of his refusal to play the part of Czar in the Senate and crowd the Force Bill through that body in the same way in which Speaker Reed crowded it through the House. Now Mr. Ingalls "gets even" by saying:

> "It was related that the streets of Jerusalem had been kept clean by every man sweeping before his own door, and he commended to the self-constituted guardians of the consciences of their associates (outside of the Senate Chamber) that they should observe a more frugal, prudent, and guarded husbandry of their disapprobation. Those leaders who had conducted the most powerful political organization known in American history to the most stupendous and overwhelming disaster received in its annals, might well pardon those who were disposed to doubt the infallibility of their judgment."

This is an entirely moderate estimate of the results of the Reed-McKinley-Lodge leadership; but what gives Ingalls a deeper sense of the "stupendous and overwhelming" character of the "disaster" is undoubtedly the part which he played in it. As he looks at "Judge" Peffer, with his "gruffly hoarse but low-toned voice, issuing from a sea of long dark beard flowing nearly to his waist," it is small wonder that his language towards Reed and Co. becomes "iridescent."

The Special Committee which Speaker Reed "packed" with great care and great disregard of precedent in such cases, for the purpose of not finding evidence in support of the charges against the Commissioner of Pensions, Gen. Raum, have concluded their labors, and are about to present a majority report declaring that they have been entirely successful, and that no really damaging evidence against Gen. Raum was able to get a hearing in their presence. The Democratic minority intend to present a quite different report, but of course the House will pay little heed to that, and will adopt the "whitewashing" verdict. At the same time we doubt if there is an intelligent person in the country, who has followed the inquiry, who will be influenced at all by the majority's finding. We observe that several Republican newspapers are saying that this finding will be a great disappointment to Democrats and Mugwumps, since they are responsible for the assault upon the Commissioner, and will be humiliated by its failure. This view is based upon a misstatement of the facts. The leading assailant of the Commissioner was the Washington correspondent of the New York *Tribune*, who was ably and bravely sustained in the editorial columns of the paper. There are no signs yet that the whitewashing verdict has produced a change of attitude in this high Republican quarter.

A bill which seems to be in some respects a closer application of the principles of the English Corrupt-Practices Act than the New York law is, has been introduced in the Minnesota Legislature. It is the first American bill of the kind, we believe, which imitates the English requirement of a limitation for campaign expenditures. It limits the amount expended by candidates for State offices, United States Senate, and Congress to $1,000; that by candidates for offices in cities of over 15,000 inhabitants to $500, and that by candidates for offices in all smaller cities and towns to $250. It requires both pre-election and post-election publication of expenses, which is a new departure. It provides that fifteen days before election each candidate shall file a sworn statement with the proper officer, "showing in detail all moneys or other considerations contributed or expended by him, or promised to be paid directly or indirectly by him or through another person in aid of his nomination." After election, successful candidates are required to file similar statements of all expenses incurred in both nomination and election. The author of the bill, Senator McMillan, proposes to amend it to make it more stringent, and the first amendment ought to be one requiring sworn statements of expenditures in detail by all campaign and other political committees as well as candidates, for the failure to have such a requirement in the New York law has been shown in practice to make its evasion a comparatively easy matter. Senator McMillan is said to contemplate a provision forbidding candidates for United States Senator to incur any expense, and another making it a misdemeanor for any newspaper to sell its influence to any candidate.

Senator Saxton has given this State an opportunity to take the lead in a most important reform by proposing an amendment to the Constitution providing for the judicial settlement of all contests for seats in either house of the Legislature. As his bill is, we believe, the first formal step of the kind which has been taken in this country, though the subject has been discussed for many years both in relation to State Legislatures and Congress, it is worth while to quote its main provision in full. His bill is in the form of a concurrent resolution, proposing the amendment of section 10 article 3 of the Constitution, and making it read as follows, the added portion being italicized:

> "Sec. 10. A majority of each house shall constitute a quorum to do business. Each house shall determine the rules of its own proceedings, and be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and shall choose its own officers. *But the Legislature may provide by law for judicial proceedings in the courts of the State to determine questions relating to contested seats in either house, and that judgment in such a proceeding shall be conclusive as to the election and qualifications of the person in whose favor it is rendered.* The Senate shall choose a temporary president when the Lieutenant-Governor shall not attend as President or shall act as Governor."

The provision which is embedded in all our constitutions, national and State, that each legislative body, Senate and lower house, shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, was taken from the English, and dates back to the time in which there was no other place in which a power so susceptible of abuse could be lodged.

Aside from the partisan aspect of the matter, the expense attending the present system is enormous. According to Speaker Reed, during the last eight Congresses $318,000 has been paid for contests in the House, an average of nearly $40,000 a year. In addition to this a vast amount of time is consumed in the hearings which ought to be devoted to the public business. As to the transfer of the power to the courts, there is no question that the only way in which this can be done is by means of a constitutional amendment, as Senator Saxton proposes. In both national and State cases this must be done. Speaker Reed, who has earned the distinction of being the most partisan Speaker the American House has ever had, favors the transfer, declaring that our present system is "unsatisfactory in results, unjust to members and contestants, and fails to secure the representation which the people have chosen." He thinks that if Congress were to authorize settlement by judicial tribunal, and this tribunal's decision were to be acquiesced in by Congress for a few years, "there would spring up such a consensus of opinion that ever afterwards the House would cease to do more than record the decisions of the tribunal." He thinks that if the proposed bill for the relief of the Supreme Court could be passed, the number of circuit judges would be so increased as to enable the tribunal to be formed of them, and this would probably afford the most desirable material. In the various States the higher courts would have to be drawn upon, and there is no reason to fear

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that their influence and standing would be in any way impaired by the duty.

A telegram from London informs us that the exports of cutlery from Sheffield to the United States have fallen off one-half since the passage of the McKinley bill. This is rather more than the American manufacturers of pocket-cutlery, who met in this city a few weeks ago to decide how much they should gouge the public, anticipated one year ago. These patriotic gentlemen held a private convention before the McKinley bill was reported from the Committee of Ways and Means, to decide what rates of duty they should ask for. Long experience had taught them the trick of asking for double what they expected to get, because former Committees of Ways and Means had been moved by conservative notions, and had generally assumed that all sorts of grabbers would put their demands higher than they ought to be, and had accordingly reduced them about 50 per cent. But, much to the surprise of the cutlery-men, McKinley gave them all that they asked for. Some of them were then ashamed that they had asked for so much, but all were alike astonished at the ease with which the money of the consumers had been voted to them. Fifty per cent. ad valorem would seem to be a sufficient tax on the public for their pocket-knives. That was the rate before McKinley took the job of lifting up the Republican party tariffwise. The McKinley rates are as follows:

	Rate.
Pen-knives, pocket-knives, and erasers, or parts thereof. Valued at not more than 50 cents per doz.	12c. per doz. and 50 per cent.
Valued at 50c. to $1.50 per dozen	50c. per doz. and 50 per cent.
Valued at $1.50 to $3 per doz.	$1 per doz. and 50 per cent.

These are the rates that were asked for by the cutlery-men. What they expected to get, and would have been entirely satisfied with, were specific duties of 6, 25, and 50 cents per dozen in addition to the former ad-valorem rate. The situation in which they now find themselves is excellently planned for the formation of a Trust.

The French protectionists have reached the McKinley state of mind and are demanding complete isolation from the outer world, and as much dearness as the law can give them. Apropos of the proposed denunciation of the commercial treaties with a view to a revision of the French tariff, M. Bourgeois, the French McKinley, attacked the Government for making certain reservations in its denunciations, and for proposing to retain in the treaties the "most favored nation" clause, which he pronounced "damnable" (*maudite*). France, he said, was, in matters of trade, fully sufficient unto herself, and he asked scornfully what had she "to do with abroad," and showed how greatly the domestic exceeded the foreign trade. In fact, with one's eyes shut, one might, in listening to his speech, have fancied one's self hearing the familiar drone of the Reed-McKinley organ. He was, it is true, repeating a good deal of the stuff which was talked by his party in the canvass before the last election, but wisdom has increased since then. M. Ribot, the Minister of Foreign Affairs, overwhelmed him in an eloquent speech, in which he protested vigorously against the notion that any nation could in this age of the world live alone, and warned the Chamber that the industries of exportation can only live by allowing abundant importation. He carried the Chamber against Bourgeois by 450 to 10—a terrible defeat for the ultras.

Twelve francs per hundred kilos is said to be the rate of duty intended to be put on pork by the French Chamber, in lieu of the prohibition heretofore decreed against the American product. This rate is equivalent nearly enough to one cent per pound, and is quite as good as prohibition for all purposes of protection to the French swine-herds and pork-butchers. We suppose that everybody in this country—at all events, every supporter of the McKinley Bill—will be entirely satisfied now. Surely Minister Reid ought to be, for he expressly told M. Ribot that we had no complaint to make against any rate of duty that the French Government might impose, but only against the imputation put upon our meats by the decree of prohibition.

The fall of Crispi, largely on a measure of taxation, shows that the financial question is more central in Italian politics than might have been inferred from the subordinate place assigned it in the speeches before the last elections. Even as it was, the Prime Minister was pushed pretty hard by some of the Radical debaters, and the solemn assurance that there should be no increase in taxation was forced from him in defence—an assurance that returned to plague him afterwards. A prominent feature in the speeches of one of his opponents, Cavalotti, was what was called a "workingman's budget." It set forth the earnings and expenses of an actual family of four hard-working people in Florence, and showed what a fearful proportion of the total income had to be turned over to the Government in the shape of taxes. This budget was carefully worked over, and the data of indirect taxation verified, by Signor Vilfredo Pareto, who published his results in the *Journal des Économistes*. The family's entire earnings amounted to $476, and its outlay for the year came within $5 of that sum. But of this outgo of $471, no less than $113 had to be paid in taxes, direct and indirect, or 23 per cent. of the entire expenses of the family. The share of the royal treasury was $69, the city took $24, the province $2, and the remainder, or about $18, went into the pockets of protected manufacturers and agriculturists. As may be inferred from this last specification, Signor Pareto has no manner of doubt that a protective tariff is a tax, and one of his columns is made up of the various assessments levied upon this family of laborers by landed proprietors and manufacturers. Indeed, one of the greatest merits of this "budget" as an economic study is the careful working out to reasonable approximations of the indirect taxes in the form of tariff discriminations, to which the food and clothing of the poor in Italy are subject. For example, this specimen family laid out $41.20 on clothing—but that sum included a tax of $7.41, of which $1.28 went to the State and $6.13 into the pocket of the protected manufacturer. In like manner, the family paid out for bread $77.40, in so doing turning over to the State $7.22, to the city $2,69, and to the protected producer $8.85. Some of the heaviest taxes, such as those on sugar, rice, and petroleum, are purely for revenue, as no domestic product comes into competition.

Such a showing as this of Signor Pareto's—and he works it out in detail for twenty-two articles of consumption—suggests the burdens under which Italian labor has to stagger, makes intelligible the expanding Italian emigration, and shows what misery at home Italy's new policy of foreign aggrandizement is causing. It is highly instructive to turn from the lot of workingmen in protected Italy to examine the state of the case in free-trade England. Fortunately, we have at hand an analogous English workingman's budget printed in the *Nineteenth Century*, in 1888, by Miss Miranda Hill. This was for a man and wife and five children, and showed expenses of about $385. The significant thing is, that, taking all the articles included in this English family's list of yearly purchases, and confronting them with the English laws of taxation, it turns out that taxes of all kinds amounted to no more than 4.4-10 per cent. upon the outgo, or less than one-fifth the Italian rate. There is no doubt that an American workingman's budget, drawn up on a similar scale and with similar scientific accuracy, is a desideratum. The idea is certainly well abroad now that tariff laws are tax laws; but this is too often a vague idea. If a veracious showing could be made of the average earnings and expenses of a typical laboring man's family, and of the proportion of the expenses which might fairly be set down to the protective tariff, it would be a most effective document for the campaign of 1892.

King Humbert has succeeded in finding a new ministry, with an old Garibaldian and Radical aristocrat, the Marquis di Rudini, at the head of it. It is made up of very heterogeneous material, of some men of much experience, and of some of none at all; but even if it were homogeneous, the chances would be against its lasting very long. Retrenchment is absolutely necessary to save Italy from ruin, and retrenchment seems incompatible with the maintenance of the Triple Alliance. In order to hold her place in it, Italy has to maintain an army and navy about twice too large for her resources. As soon as Rudini begins to cut down, he will come into collision with Germany and Austria, who will bring pressure to bear on him through the King.

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LAW AND THEFT.

ONE of the oddest and most unfortunate phenomena in the history of the copyright discussion is the appearance every now and then, when the Pirates are ready to throw up their hands and ask for quarter, of some moralist or theologian to cheer them up and encourage them to make some further resistance, by proclaiming that the poor men have done nothing wrong, and that we must not call them hard names or despitefully use them. One such instance was afforded by the uprising of Dr. Crosby to justify, or at least palliate, the Rev. Dr. Funk's operations against the 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' We now have another in the uprising of Mr. Freeman, the English historian, to protest against the harsh language used by some English writers towards the House of Representatives for failing to pass the Copyright Bill last session.

Touching Mr. Freeman's protest, in his letter to the Philadelphia *Press*, against the use of bad language towards the House of Representatives or towards the Pirates, we have nothing to say. The strength of one's language is partly a question of taste and partly a question of expediency. We ourselves thought the epithets bestowed on the House of Representatives by some English periodicals unjust as well as unwise. But what concerns us now is the reasons Mr. Freeman gives for deprecating vituperation. One of them is that all property, and especially literary property, is the creation of law, and that copyright is "a purely artificial privilege," and that, therefore, it is highly indecent to speak of persons who publish other men's works without paying for them, as "thieves" or "pirates." That the historian of English liberty should offer the world, in such a cause, the plea that property is the creation of law is very curious, because there is hardly a step in the creation of the present English Constitution, from Magna Charta down, which was not a protest, in some shape, against the doctrine that a man's moral right to his goods and chattels is at all dependent on the provision made by law for his protection in the enjoyment of them. The great doctrine that taxation without representation is a thing to be resisted with the sword if necessary, rests on the very proposition which Mr. Freeman denies. When Hampden refused to pay the ship-money because he had not voted it through his representatives, seven of the twelve judges decided against him, and his refusal was therefore illegal; but he persisted in it, nevertheless, to the death, and all Englishmen now hold his memory in reverence therefor. The amount was trifling, but, as has been finely said, if he had paid it he would have been a slave.

Property, in truth, in its moral aspect, is no more a creation of law than justice is. It was created, as justice was, by the appearance of a second man on the globe. On each of the two there then promptly descended that great moral obligation which the friends of copyright now seek to have embodied in legislation —the obligation not to steal and not to covet his neighbor's goods, his ox or his ass, his man-servant or maid-servant, his wife, "or *anything that is his.*" This obligation existed before either parliaments or kings, before even the Ten Commandments. It arose out of the very nature of things. Mr. Freeman confounds, as do thousands of inferior men, the question of right with the question of security. Law cannot give a man a moral right to the product of his labor, nor can it take it away from him, a good illustration of which rule is to be found in the institution of slavery. The law deprived the negro of all legal rights, but it could not touch any of his moral or natural rights. What the law does for property is to give it security. It can by denying security, as in the case of literary property, make it worthless, but it cannot lessen the owner's right to it. It cannot diminish the moral guilt of stealing it from him. What the apologists of Pirates mean, therefore, when they talk of the law as a "creator of property," is simply that no man can without the help of the law get from property the sum of those pleasures which make it valuable. This may be true; but how can this fact excuse in the forum of morals the man who avails himself of this absence of legal defence to appropriate as much of his neighbor's goods as he takes a fancy to? Is it possible that when Arabs strip travellers in the desert, the offence is not robbery, but a failure of the law to create property in watches, guns, and camels in that particular region?

Mr. Freeman, in like manner, when he comes to speak of copyright as "a special privilege," confounds plagiarism and piracy. This is the most fertile source of misunderstanding in the whole discussion. In nine cases out of ten, a Pirate put on the defensive defends himself against not the charge of piracy, but the charge of plagiarism; and, in nine cases out of ten, moralists who take up the cudgels against the existence of literary property try to show the innocence not of piracy, but of plagiarism. What is a plagiarist? It is, says the dictionary, a man "who purloins the words, writings, or ideas of another and passes them off as his own:" Now, it is no easy thing to convict a man of this offence unless he makes long textual extracts. The ownership of an idea, and even of forms of expression, is generally very difficult to trace. The same idea often occurs to hundreds of men at the same time, and often finds very similar expression at the hands of hundreds of different authors or writers. Therefore defenders of literary property have never attempted to set up the doctrine of "property in ideas" which opponents of copyright are so fond of attacking. They have never maintained that it is or ought to be unlawful to use a thought uttered by one man for the moral or mental culture of another man, or of forbidding the reproduction, in one man's book or speech, of as many ideas of other men as he can collect or recast to suit his purpose. Authors or writers who do this a good deal, undoubtedly incur discredit by it with their fellows and the general public. It greatly damages a writer's fame to be rightfully accused of want of originality, or of imitation, or of getting materials at second hand. But no one has ever proposed to punish or restrain this sort of misappropriation by law. No one has ever contended for the infliction on the purloiners of other men's ideas of any penalty but ridicule or disgrace, although their name is legion and their depredations ruthless and notorious; and yet a very large proportion of the Pirates and their apologists expend all their strength in showing that one man may lawfully appropriate another man's ideas for his own use or behoof, or even present them to the world as the product of his own brain

What the champions of copyright, both national and international, assail is, not the appropriation of one man's ideas for another man's use and behoof, *but the sale of one man's ideas and forms of expression in open market by another man in competition with the author.* This is "piracy." This is what we ask to have stopped and punished by law. We do not say to Pirates, You shall not take the Blacks' Encyclopædia to your home and prepare articles and speeches or even books out of its rich stores of information, and, if you are dishonest enough to do so, give them to the world as your own, or absorb as much of the facts and ideas as your mental powers will permit. What we say is, You shall not, while denying the right of property in it in the hands of the original author or compiler, treat it as property in your own hands, and offer it for sale in competition with the man whom you are plundering. We do not know how much reflection Mr. Freeman gives to questions of jurisprudence, but we feel sure that he will see at a glance that a man who treats as merchantable goods in his own hands something he has taken away from another man, is estopped from denying that it was property in the hands of that other man. Anything capable of being property in one man's hands must be property in the hands of every man who has come by it honestly. That Funk can take from Black something which Black has made, and open a store for the sale of it, and deny Black's moral right to it, on the ground that the law has made no provision for Black's protection in the enjoyment of it, is a doctrine of such monstrous mien that, to be rejected, it needs but to be stated.

Property in books might be further defended against selling Pirates by an appeal to the Golden Rule, but it is not necessary. It ought to be sufficient to close the mouths of all moralists on this question by asking them how they would *feel* if, after having spent thousands of dollars and years of labor on a book, a perfect stranger were to step in, reprint it, and begin to undersell the original owner in the open market. An honest answer to this question from the first Pirate one met would settle the question in the eyes of all moralists. But, as we have said, the contention that goods in which A is doing a roaring trade were not property in the hands of B, who manufactured them, and from whom they were taken,

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when set up by A, perishes at once through its absurdity. One does not need to draw on the finer feelings of one's nature to dispose of it, and we are quite sure that no honest man who looks at it in this light has ever listened to it without finding plenty of abusive epithets rise to his lips.

WOMEN AND MEDICINE.

No more important event for women has happened for many years than the decision of the Board of Trustees of the Johns Hopkins Medical School—under the pressure of a gift of a hundred thousand dollars from the women of the country—to open its doors to women students. It may be considered the turning-point, for this country, of the fate of women as physicians. It is not that there are not already women physicians who are thoroughly well educated (in foreign schools), and who have found the large and lucrative practice which their talents have deserved; and it is not that all women who practise (any more than all men) will hereafter be required to take the post-graduate courses of the Johns Hopkins school. But the secret of women's rank in medicine, *as women*, depends upon the ability of the best women to hold their own by the side of the best men; when that is gained, the women of humble talents will fall into rank beside the men of humble talents, and it will be a question of the skill of a particular practitioner, and not, as now, of a particular sex. Until that is done, the woman physician herself cannot help feeling that it is the first part and not the second part of her descriptive title that rises large in the consciousness of those who discuss and fix her standing in the scale of accessible medical attendants. It is, therefore, for its effect upon the position of women in medicine in general, even more than for its effect upon the knowledge of the women who shall enjoy its unapproachable facilities for instruction, that the opening of the Johns Hopkins Medical School forms an era in the progress of women towards the assumption of their natural responsibilities and duties.

The *Century* for February contains a remarkable series of open letters in which the subject is viewed from various different points of view. The things principally dwelt upon, aside from the one which we have already mentioned, are the facility with which coeducation in medicine is carried out in Europe and in the West, and the special advantages which women, if well educated, will have over men in many special kinds of medical practice. On the former head, Dr. Osler gives the results of his observations last summer in the Swiss medical schools, at four of which women are now attending on the same terms as men, and into one of which, that of Basle, they were admitted after the Faculty had asked for and obtained a definite statement from the University of Zurich as to the feasibility of coeducation in medicine. As is well known, the Paris Faculty throws open laboratories, dissecting-rooms, class-rooms, and hospitals, without any condition except the possession of the necessary qualifications; and women have studied side by side with men, since 1866, in Italy, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Belgium, as well as in Switzerland and France. In this country there are thirty-eight medical schools, of one kind and another, open to both sexes. As Dr. Folsom well says:

> "With more than a score of women in a dozen States filling medical appointments which are by law open to their sex only; with the number of the women doctors in this country now reaching the thousands, and with a demand for their services so great that, even if inadequately trained, they only too readily find employment; when women are admitted in Europe to opportunities for medical education on the same terms with men, it seems almost a work of supererogation to explain and defend such facts, or to attempt to reason why they should or should not be."

On the subject of the peculiar adaptedness of women to the medical profession, several of the writers make very pertinent remarks. People in health are apt to forget of what immense importance to the patient is the *Stimmung* in which his doctor leaves him after his daily visit; a woman's quick comprehension of and active sympathy with physical, and still more mental, suffering are sources of alleviation of which it is difficult to overestimate the importance. Dr. Susan Dimock was wont to say, in her lectures to her pupils: "If I were obliged in my practice to do without sympathy or medicine, I should prefer to do without medicine." But if a woman's delicacy and penetration are of consequence with ordinary patients, they are absolutely indispensable with women in insane asylums and penal institutions and reformatories. To quote the words of Mrs. Josephine Shaw Lowell:

> "To a depraved woman no man dares to show tenderness or pity; he must feel and show to her only the moral repulsion which her degradation arouses in him. Should he long to help her, to lift and succor her, he is powerless, and he cannot show her even the common pity of one human being for another who is suffering; she will not understand it, and it can do her no good, but only harm." But "the entrance into her life of an absolutely pure-minded woman, who is also strong, intelligent, and kind, is a revelation to her; when such a woman shows herself full of tender pity, the elevating influence is wonderful."

It is rather remarkable that not a single one of these writers has a word to say on the question whether the quirls of a woman's brain have any peculiarities which necessarily unfit her from profiting by the most advanced medical instruction. It may, perhaps, be considered that that question was settled once for all some twenty years ago, when, after the death of Dr. Susan Dimock, above referred to, in the wreck of the *Schiller*, at the age of twenty-eight, Dr. Bowditch said of her: "I found her one of the most accomplished physicians I have met"; and Dr. Samuel Cabot: "In her short life, she acquired, in the face of many obstacles, an amount of medical knowledge and of surgical skill such as but few possess. Her skill and self-command in operating no one can appreciate who has not witnessed it."

Not the least interesting piece of information communicated in these letters is that contained in Cardinal Gibbons's graceful recognition of women in their new rôle. In the course of it he says:

> "It is perhaps not sufficiently understood that there is no obstacle in ecclesiastical or canon law to the education of women for the medical profession. Among the persons inhibited by the Church from pursuing the profession of medicine are included priests, monks, and clergymen generally, but not women."

The fiat has gone forth that in Baltimore it is not immodest for women to study anatomy and physiology together with men. Undergraduate coeducation the Trustees may perhaps be expected to hesitate over for some little time to come, but the question of admitting women to post-graduate courses (as we pointed out in these columns upon the occasion of the opening of Clark University) is a totally different matter. No women go through with such difficult work as they presuppose (and no men either) unless they have minds thoroughly occupied with serious questions, and unless they are of an age at which they can be safely trusted to take care of themselves. Must the women of the country form a separate organization and raise a separate large sum of money in order to effect their entrance into the adult schools of instruction of each of the great universities, or will some boards of trustees be found who will be willing to take such eminently wise action upon their own motion?

ECONOMIC METHODS IN GERMANY AND FRANCE.

THE recent debates in the Prussian Diet and the German Reichstag concerning economic matters, and the floating of the new French loan, are of interest alike to students of finance and of that modern science known as the comparative psychology of nations.

The Prussian budget for the fiscal year 1891 to 1892 was submitted to the Diet by the Minister of Finance, Dr. Miquel, in a speech of studied soberness. On its face it is by no means a discouraging exhibit. As in the past ten years, there is no deficit, and no new loan will be called for during the present year. The expenditures are estimated at 1,720,800,000 marks ($413,000,000) and the surplus at 33,600,000 marks. But there is a falling off of 65,000,000 as compared with the surplus of last year; the just demands of Government officials for increased salaries are only partially met in the present budget, and the Minister calls attention to the fluctuating character of the income from the Government railroads, which has sunk from 42,000,000 in the preceding year to a little over 5,000,000. This falling off is partly due to the inundations which visited Prussia during the past year, but in a greater degree to the increase in wages and the price of coal. Herr Miquel had already last November, in his speech on tax reform, dwelt on the insufficiency of the average surplus of even the last ten prosperous years as compared with a national debt of nearly 6,000,000,000 marks, and he again warned the Diet against entertaining too optimistic a view of the condition of Prussian finances. He pointed out that the direct taxes, which ten years ago yielded 150,000,000 marks, had since then increased only to 156,000,000, purposely ignoring the great gain in the revenue from indirect taxation,

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and, as is supposed, paving the way for an increase of the direct-tax rate.

Simultaneously, the debates in the Reichstag on the proposed abolition of the corn duties furnished an instructive commentary on the general economic policy of the Government of the German Empire. Germany has for months been negotiating with Austria-Hungary about a new commercial treaty, involving a reduction in the import duty on corn. The entire abolition of the duty was demanded by the Freisinnige and Socialist parties, and, until recently, was stoutly resisted by the Conservatives. The German Chancellor himself, in alluding during the debates to the necessity of concluding commercial treaties with Austria and Italy, referred to France and Russia as the countries which still maintain a policy of commercial isolation, and plainly intimated that he was by no means hostile to a reduction of the corn duties, the abolition of the sugar bounty, and other measures tending to lessen the cost of the necessaries of life. He thus furnished considerable encouragement to the National Liberals, whose leader, Herr von Bennigsen, some time ago declared that the conclusion of a commercial treaty with Austria would lead to the abandonment of the rigid protection policy of Germany. Indeed, not only Liberal papers like the *National Zeitung*, but Conservative organs like the *Post*, which was formerly the mouthpiece of Varnbüler and Kardorff, the chief apostles of protectionism, have sounded the death-knell of the economic policy of Bismarck, still upheld by him through the *Hamburger Nachrichten*.

"Protective duties," says the *Post*, in an article which has excited general attention, "are a rude weapon, precisely as a blow with the fist is. But if one is attacked and receives a blow, he must retaliate with one. Therefore, countries which indiscriminately and from purely selfish motives use protective measures against us, must be treated by us in the same manner. On the other hand, in regard to countries with which we are in intimate economic contact, and with which we are politically on good terms, everything should be done to promote, as far as possible, unrestrained commercial intercourse. We cannot keep up a commercial warfare with the whole world, nor is the rest of the world determined to wage war against us as do the United States and our neighbor east of us. We shall never succeed in promoting the interests of agriculture solely by complete or partial protection."

After an exciting four days' debate, the motion for the reduction of the corn duties was rejected in the Reichstag by a majority of 210 against 106, but the defeat of the Freisinnige and Social Democratic parties was more apparent than real, inasmuch as it is expected that the Centre party will vote for the commercial treaty with Austria in due time, having rejected Herr Richter's motion only in order to strengthen temporarily the Government. The present heavy majority for the retention of the existing duties will enable the German Government to demand of Austria important concessions in the matter of freight rates before granting the asked-for reduction of the Import duty on corn to three marks and fifty pfennigs.

While Germany is thus evidently preparing to adopt a more liberal economic policy than she has pursued for many a year, the tremendous financial success recently achieved by the French Government is incidentally interpreted as a refutation of the arguments of the extreme French protectionists, whose excessive demands had caused the Government serious embarrassment. The preparations for the issuing of the loan were made with that desire for dramatic effect which the French carry even into their financial operations, and which contrasts so forcibly with the German method of dealing with similar problems. The floating of the loan was to be, if possible, an even more striking demonstration of the financial strength of France than was the subscription to the loan of 1886, which was covered twenty-one times over. The Government asked for 870,000,000 francs in 3 per cent. rentes, and was offered 14,500,000,000 francs, or sixteen and a-half times the amount of the loan, several institutions rather absurdly subscribing each more than the total amount of the loan. Thus, the Company of the Paris Agents de Change subscribed three times the amount of the loan, depositing 453,000,000 francs as security; the Crédit Lyonnais twice the amount, depositing 297,000,000, etc. The price at which the loan was issued was 92.55; and fully 2 per cent. more might have been obtained, had the Government not been willing to forego the difference in order to insure to the fullest extent the success of the loan. And this patriotic consideration overcame all the prudent misgivings of those who foresaw the frightful stringency of the money market consequent upon the withdrawal of the enormous sums that accompanied the applications. So great was the strain on the Bank of France that, according to the *Temps*, the bank was for a moment in actual danger of having either to suspend its discounts or draw on its cash reserve.

The exultation over the success of the loan is not in the least dimmed by the publication of the French budget for 1891, which shows 3,164,900,000 francs of expenses against 3,165,300,000 of receipts, and estimated advances of 58,000,000 to the railway companies, which will go to swell the floating debt, thus adding to a national debt which exceeds the gigantic sum of 30,000,000,000 francs. There is, nevertheless, in the abounding faith of France in her resources, in the eagerness of all Frenchmen, high and low, to evince their patriotism by placing their savings at the disposal of the Government, something which fills the German breast with envy. The Munich *Allgemeine Zeitung* justly says that, after making due allowance for the French liking for show and patriotic demonstration, there remains in France a clear perception of the wants of the average capitalist and of the best interests of the country.

"With us," that paper says, "until recently the opposite conditions prevailed. The issuing of loans long ago decided upon was delayed until the most favorable opportunity had passed, and capitalists, if they interested themselves at all, found neither pleasure nor profit in the transaction. In France the national wealth of the country and the solidity of her securities are placed in as bright a light as possible, while we dwell as much as possible on the dark side. Both methods are fraught with danger. In France, the inevitable reaction, brought about by possibly trivial causes, must result in serious losses to the holders of *rentes;* in Germany, Government securities can never claim the rank and value to which they are entitled."

THE MONUMENTS OF SOUTHWARK.

LONDON, December, 1890.

ONE wanders through Southwark now, as I did the other day under the guidance of one of the historians of the borough, with a kind of forlorn consciousness of the days associated with Chaucer and Shakspere, to say nothing of John Harvard. I was the guest the other afternoon of Canon Boger, the head of St. Saviour's School, and he led me to a bay window in the front of the master's house on the street named after Archbishop Sumner, and drew my attention to some ancient and lofty trees overtopping the ridge-poles of the neighboring houses, and said they were the last relics of the times when all this region was the garden of the palace of the Bishop of Winchester. Southwark is now in the see of Rochester, and in the midst of the rebuilding of the nave of St. Saviour's Church, the old St. Mary Overy's, the good bishop—not unknown to us in America from his visits there—would interest all Harvardians in the shrine that the probable baptism of John Harvard within its walls has sanctified in their memories. It is certain that the St. Saviour's School, which formerly stood adjacent to the church, had in those early days the father of John Harvard among its governors. Amid the changes which Southwark has undergone, so that most of the ancient landmarks are obliterated which connect it with names already mentioned, the school at which Harvard may have been a pupil, and which Queen Elizabeth founded, disappeared, and the building which it now occupies, nearer Southwark bridge, is already dingy with the damp and smoke of sixty years. But changes are not at an end. The forms have dwindled in occupancy under the increasing remoteness of the habitable regions of such families as furnish its pupils, and the time is not far distant when the school will have to remove to the suburbs to follow its pupils. The master's household is a bit of educated gentleness in the midst of incongruous surroundings, and the change must come.

St. Saviour's Church, with what there is left of it in the choir, shows the very beginnings of Early English architecture, before the Norman had lost its influence; and at the present moment this almost sole conspicuous surviving landmark of the Southwark of Harvard's day is undergoing restoration at the hands of the nineteenth-century builders. The nave, as I have said, is being entirely rebuilt, and when the work is done it is expected that the new See of South London will be constituted, and the old St. Mary Overy's will be the new Cathedral. The church was locked when we got to it, but a call at the sexton's house gave us the key; and as the heavy bolt of the north-transept door flew back and we pushed back the baize door within, we were at once at the side of the tomb of John Gower, with its recumbent effigy, his pillowed head being crowned with a laurel wreath. Thus St. Saviour's is associated with the very beginnings of English literature, as well as with the memory of that Englishman who gave the first practical impulse to the founding of education in New England. If the strange rudimentary English of Gower had little to attract that young scholar of St. Saviour's—as we may well believe him to have been a pupil of the school of which his father was a governor—there was a later literature as well as a later history associated with St. Saviour's and the

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Bankside that a youth intended for the Church perhaps even then, and maybe possessing budding Puritan principles, may not have been unconscious of; while those evidences which lay about him might have given some strain to his devotional instincts. In the rear of the choir he may have wandered in that retro-choir which we can see to-day much as it was in those days of Bloody Mary when a Consistory Court condemned to the stake those Protestant martyrs whom Sir Gilbert Scott has so conspicuously commemorated in the Gothic monument which the stranger looks at with interest in Oxford. The upholders of the mimic scene were quite as striking figures in the boy's memory of what in Southwark he may have seen and must have heard. He could hardly have remembered the "forenoone knell of the great bell," as the church records tell the story, when Edmund Shakspere, in 1607, was buried in St. Saviour's, and when it is fair to suppose that the dead player's brother William was among the mourners. Indeed, this Church of St. Saviour's must be reckoned—if we are not too iconoclastic—among the three historic buildings, now standing, which the great dramatist may have seen. These are the Hall of the Middle Temple, where "Twelfth Night" was first acted, and where one of the benchers took me recently; Crosby Hall, mentioned by Shakspere as Crosby Place, a stately mansion of the fifteenth century, near Bishopsgate, where I remember once some of the officers of the British Museum took me to lunch in the restaurant which has been made of its fine old hall; and this Church of St. Saviour's, with its many dramatic memories, for here also are buried Fletcher and Massinger, the last called a "stranger" in the records of burial.

I strolled about the neighborhood of the church with my mentor, to see the site of the house where Harvard lived, that of the home of Shakspere, and that of the old Tabard Inn, where the Canterbury pilgrims gathered. Everything is changed, and recent structures, with their utilitarian purposes, confront the seeker for memorials. The old White Hart Inn, with its courtyard and crazy galleries, where and in the adjacent rooms the vilest poverty displayed its sickly rags, stood till within a very few years. We did find one of these old inns left in part, and, on one side of what was once an ample court, there was a range of galleries, still standing and not altogether fallen into disgrace; for the George Inn, as it is still called, harbors the marketmen who come in to sell their vegetables in the open ground on one side of St. Saviour's.

Where Shakspere's Globe Theatre stood is now a bit of property appertaining to Barclay & Perkins's great brewery, whose extensive building has done a good share of the destruction of old landmarks in this neighborhood. When one looks at the big property thus represented, one may think that its business manager might strut with some of the importance that we are told the great Doctor Samuel Johnson had, when, as the executor of Thrale, the brewer, he disposed of what is the nucleus of this vast estate. Hereabouts one sees at every turn some old name of Shaksperian flavor—the Bank End, the Bear Garden, the Falcon Dock; but the busy trains of the Southeastern rushing overhead dispel every lingering association.

There is yet a chance to save one's impressions in the house of an occasional antiquary. My guide took me to the establishment of the leading citizen of Southwark. In his private office he had varied his business energies with a study of the antiquities of the borough. The walls of a large room were hung with old prints and old drawings of all the landmarks, of historic association, which have now disappeared, and one could find great help there in rehabilitating the Southwark which had been known by Gower, Chaucer, Shakspere, and John Harvard.

There seems to be fair reason for supposing that the map of the New England coast which Capt. John Smith had made in 1616 was on board the *Mayflower*, and that it helped the Pilgrims to understand where they were when, beating about among the breakers off Nauset, they turned north and found a haven under the lea of Cape Cod. There was some improvement in this map in successive editions, with changes showing the settlements after Boston was founded, and when the interest in the young Puritan colony of Massachusetts Bay was attracting the attention of so many in the Puritan Emmanuel College of Cambridge. There was no other map likely to have been studied by those longing and expectant emigrants, for there is no certainty that the map made in manuscript by Gov. Winthrop and discovered a few years ago in the British Museum ever secured a general acquaintance among those smitten with the fever of emigration. There are two or three of these earliest manuscript maps, figuring our New England coast and unchanged by an engraver's fancy, which I shall make it a point to see before long. The most interesting bit of paper, perhaps, to a student of the broader aspects of American history is that to which Major directed the world's attention, several years ago, as being a sketch of the outline of the American continent, drawn by Leonardo da Vinci, and which is preserved among the drawings of that master at Windsor in the Queen's library. I saw it some years ago, when the late librarian of the Queen, Mr. Woodward, was alive; but since then there have been some dissentients to Mr. Major's judgment, and the connection of Da Vinci with it has been denied. For this reason I wish to see it again, and now that the Queen has left Windsor for Osborne, I hope to have the opportunity. Another is what is known as the "Figurative Map," preserved in the Dutch archives, and which embodies the results of the Hollanders' exploration of the New England coast, just about the time when Smith sailed and rowed along the reaches of the shore to make the sketches upon which he founded his map. I know the map well enough from the facsimile which was made for the State of New York a good many years ago; but the student well knows that he studies a facsimile with much more satisfaction after he has seen the original. The third is this map of Winthrop. I have not yet asked to see it at the Museum. There have been two glass negatives of it sent to America—one through the agency of Mr. Waters, and the other I myself sent for while I was engaged on work that required the seeing of it. I suppose the chance of new discoveries about it is small, but there is the back of the sheet to be looked at, the water-mark, and perhaps some parts that were obscure in the negative. The map was evidently folded to be sent to England in a letter, and I have always been in hopes that the accompanying letter may be hidden under a wrong entry in the manuscripts catalogue of the Museum.

That Harvard should have known Smith may not be probable, for Harvard was still a student at Cambridge when Smith died in 1631 and was buried in St. Sepulchre's in London; but his name had been for some time one of romantic interest, and there was some truth in the epitaph that was put above his grave, that the grim King had at last conquered one who in his time had conquered many kings. It is a pleasure to know that the dilapidation which has now rendered the inscription almost unreadable, is to be stayed at last, since the vestry of the church have within a few days voted to restore the monument.

JUSTIN WINSOR.

SOCIALISTIC TENDENCIES.

PARIS, January 21, 1891.

ALL the speeches from the throne, all the declarations of the Premiers of Europe, have been unanimous in declaring that the peace of the world has never been so well assured. Surely, the famous precept, "Si vis pacem, para bellum," has never been so well obeyed. If the love of peace may be measured by the degree of preparation for war, then we can really be said to love peace with a vengeance. The political world has been quiet during the last year, and political questions have been completely put in the shade by social and economical questions. So far, socialism has been chiefly a revolutionary and destructive force; there were, it is true, some schools of socialism which professed that society could be peacefully and systematically reorganized, and had elaborate plans for the happiness and the salvation of the world. These schools are nearly forgotten; few people care nowadays for the doctrines of Saint-Simon, of Fourier, of Considérant, etc. The modern Socialist is above all a revolutionist: he thinks less of building than he does of destroying. If a new society can be formed, let it be on the ruins of the old. Such are the instincts of the French Communist, of the men who fought during the Commune and tried to burn all Paris; of the Russian Nihilist, who sees no remedy for the evils of his country but assassination; of the Socialists who fought in Spain against the Republic as they would have fought against the monarchy.

Revolutionary socialism is a mysterious force, which endangers the political and social fabric of all countries. It has negative rather than positive doctrines; its army is formed of all those who think that they have been robbed of the natural inheritance of man. As long as Prince Bismarck was in power, he fought this revolutionary socialism with the determination and boldness which is in his character; he knew better than anybody how easily the German character absorbs ideas, how ready it is to generalize, and to what extremes it can carry a principle, whether right or wrong. Socialism had made, notwithstanding all the repressive laws, great progress among the German population, and its progress was not unconnected with the sufferings which are necessarily caused by the obligation of military service. Since the retirement of Prince Bismarck, we have been told to satiety that this retirement had no other cause than the temper of the Chancellor, his dictatorial habits, his impatience of opposition; but it is certainly not a little singular that his withdrawal coincided with the repeal of what are called the socialist laws. The Socialists can have now in Germany a party organization, committees, caucuses, newspapers, lecturers; they can agitate the country, collect money, encourage the strikes.

The young Emperor thought it expedient to adopt a course which Prince Bismarck would not adopt; he came forward with the boldness of youth and attempted to conciliate the Socialists instead of disarming them. You remember how he convoked a conference at Berlin, and asked the advice of the conference on some of the questions which are discussed eve-

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ry day by the Socialists, and among others on the limitation of the hours of work. The conference, hastily summoned, composed of men who were strangers to each other, having no very definite object, and feeling that its decisions could have no sanction, was merely academical; it minimized its work, and left no real trace. But what remains, what is not forgotten, what has agitated the whole working class in Germany and in other countries, is the appearance, in the person of the Emperor of Germany, of a new sort of socialism, of State socialism.

Political economists have always struggled against the interference of the State in all private contracts, in all matters which are not strictly bound up with the preservation of the State. "Laissez faire, laissez passer," has been their motto. Political economy had its founders in a land of liberty, in England; it made converts in France, in Italy, in other countries, among the men devoted to the cause of civil and political liberty. State socialism is considered by political economists as one of the worst forms of oppression: but the pure doctrine of political economy is not just now in the ascendant—it is suffering a terrible eclipse. Democracy does not seem to be favorable to its axioms and principles; and the reason of it is obvious—universal suffrage brings to the surface, as representatives of the people, men who are condemned to represent local and provincial interests. Those interests are blind, they are jealous, they ignore the general and really national interests. The farmer of the Beauce wants his grain to be protected, unaware that France can import grain at Marseilles and export it at Havre or Dunkirk, and that the great current of traffic going from the Black Sea to the English coast, through the French territory, is a great source of wealth. The same may be said of every industry—of the wine trade, for example. It is a curious fact that the French Chamber, elected by universal suffrage, is becoming more widely protectionist every day. Well, protection is a form of State socialism, and it is not to be wondered at if State socialism gains where the spirit of protection does. In Germany the ground is well prepared; the State has since the war bought nearly all the important railways—all those which are called strategic; the State long ago organized the system of compulsory insurance—why should it not try to regulate the relations of labor and capital?

State socialism now confronts revolutionary socialism. Will the former destroy the latter, or will it simply favor its progress? State socialism aims to be one of the supports of the State, to work in the interests of the nation. The Emperor of Germany will certainly not abandon the principle of universal and compulsory military service, but here State socialism finds itself at issue with revolutionary socialism, for the chief character of the latter is internationalism. Herr Bebel does not speak of Alsace-Lorraine in the same way as the Emperor. The real socialists do not care for armies—they represent them as the tools of despots; they speak to each other across the frontiers. In the land of promise which they dream of, the Vosges, or the Rhine, or the Black Forest will not separate hereditary enemies. How can revolutionary socialism, which is international, be reconciled with State socialism, which is eminently national? It is difficult to imagine. So far State socialism, where it has been tried, has produced deplorable effects. The interference of the State with the management of railroads, for instance, has not produced the happiest results, It has produced an artificial state of things, which in the end has been detrimental even to the interests which it professed to defend. In the long run, liberty cures its own wounds; oppression never does.

We are threatened now with a third kind of socialism, with what might be called Christian socialism. The Catholic Congress of Saragossa distinctly asked for the intervention of the State in the relations of labor and capital. The Congress of Liége in Belgium formulated the same doctrines. In England we have heard them promulgated by Cardinal Manning. In France M. de Mun and a few others are the ardent promoters of this new sort of socialism. The Pope is engaged upon an encyclical on the subject of the social question; he has already written two by way of preparation for this encyclical, which, if I am well informed, will be more precise and doctrinal. Instructions were given some time ago to all the nuncios, and they have been furnishing the Pope with documents and statistics relating to the labor question. A confidential note of the Cardinal Secretary of State gave the nuncios an indication of the fundamental ideas which were to be contained in the forthcoming encyclical, with orders to sound the governments to which they are accredited on the probable effect which the encyclical might have. Naturally, the communications which the nuncios have made on this subject have not had an official, not even an officious, character. It would have been contrary to the traditions of the Holy See. The nuncios were merely to talk on the subject in a discreet manner.

It is obvious that the nuncios, having a diplomatic character, had in a measure their observations to make on the effect which the encyclical (or at least some of its passages) might have where they reside. It is said that, in the primitive text, the encyclical contained a rather warm eulogy of the Emperor of Germany, on account of the solicitude which he has shown, since he ascended the throne, for the welfare of the working classes, the Pope and the Emperor finding themselves this time in complete unison. But the special and perhaps too flattering mention of a sovereign to whom the Pope seemed to give a preponderating place among his brother sovereigns has, it seems, been considered as out of place in a document which will be addressed to the whole Catholic world. Catholicism is a universal religion as Socialism is a universal doctrine. All countries, whether they are democratic or not, seem to be imbued with vague aspirations and instinctive desires.

At the root of the present difficulties is the fact that the religious sentiments of the people are everywhere less acute than in former times. The contrasts between social classes are greater than in the past. The sense of resignation is gone, the spirit of discontent and revolt is becoming universal. The press acts like those resonators which magnify sound. Every day brings from all quarters of the globe some tale of misery, of horror, of cruelty; the many ideas which had not found a definite formula are becoming more distinct since they can be expressed in a word. The struggle for life is one of these terrible words which have rapidly won popularity. Mankind, as a whole, is probably neither more nor less happy than it was in ancient times; but it is more conscious. Religion found a divine solace for all sufferers, but it seems as if this solace had lost some of its power. Must the promise of a heavenly paradise be replaced by the promise of a terrestrial paradise? Christian socialism can no more change the earth into a paradise than State socialism or than revolutionary socialism. But it is surely a singular trait of the times that from such different quarters efforts should be made in the same direction; and it is painful to think that these efforts are all misdirected, and that the hopes held out to mankind can never be realized.

THE HOUSING OF THE POOR IN NAPLES.

LONDON, January, 1891.

"NEW Torments and New Tormented" is the title of an article in the *Nuova Antologia* by Pasquale Villari, Professor and now Senator—author of the life of Macchiavelli, of Savonarola, etc., but whose chief title to his well-earned reputation as an Italian citizen and patriot will ever be his 'Lettere Meridionali,' which, published in the *Opinione*, the organ of the then dominant Moderate party, called public attention to the vast untold, undreamed-of misery in Naples. At the time of its publication I was engaged in exploring underground Naples and persuaded by my friend to publish the results in a local paper, the *Pungolo* of Naples. Villari himself, with other friends, republished my letters in a small volume entitled 'La Miseria in Napoli' (Florence, 1877). As the motive of my researches was merely to collect facts and ideas as to the causes of prostitution, and to assist a well-known philanthropist in his inquiry into the causes of agricultural distress, I hesitated as to the publication, well knowing that for a British-born subject to talk of misery elsewhere would be to court the taunt, "Physician, heal thyself." But the Professor's pertinacity equals his modesty; he went to London two months after his visit to Naples, and wrote me a long letter, in which he described his visits to the worst quarters of London accompanied by a policeman in plain clothes, to the East End slums, to the low streets round the docks, always urging on his guide to take him to the "worst, the vilest, and most criminal quarters of London known to him." The policeman did this to the best of his ability, taking him into the worst huts and hovels and dens that he knew of, and also to some of the worst lodging-houses, where the beds are let at 1d. per night.

"Well," he wrote, "though I cannot affirm that I have seen the worst misery of London, I can say I have done my best to do so, and I can on my honor assure you that I am convinced that the poor of Naples are infinitely and beyond comparison worse off than the poor of London. If in London the poor die oftener of starvation than the poor of Naples, this is owing to the worse climate, not to their greater misery. If the climate of Naples was that of London, a far greater number would find peace in the tomb, ceasing from a life which is worse than death. . . . My judgments, being human, may err; but, I repeat, great, immense is the misery of the poor in London; yet I am persuaded that those who affirm that the poor of London are in worse conditions than those of Naples, either do not know the poor of London or the poor of Naples."

This letter, the fact that two home ministers supplied me with credentials to the Prefect and heads of police, of sanitary authorities, of prison directors, urging on them to assist me in seeing all and in examining accounts, etc., encouraged me to spend some six months in one year and three months four years later in underground Naples, in the galleys, the prisons, the so-called charitable institutions, in the hospitals, in the houses of the four classes of the then licensed prostitutes, and, accompanied by policemen and volunteers, in the worst lodging-houses and streets at night, in the fondacos and the grottoes. After each visit I wrote my experiences. None were challenged. One statement denied was after-

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wards proved to be a fact. Many others, searchers and writers, put the results of these inquiries on record, the municipality began to bestir itself, then the members of Parliament; but until King Cholera asserted his despotism, it was not generally believed that Naples was really worse off than other large and densely populated cities. Are there any cities where thirty and forty families live in one underground natural grotto, whose only access is by a staircase hewn in the rock, where there is no well, no drain, no window, no ceiling save the rock, no pavement save the alternate rock and mud, where no partition divides one family from another, where all the operations of humanity from birth to death are carried on in public? we used to ask. "Well, no, perhaps not; but we don't believe that there are any in Naples, either." If the doubting Thomases were willing to come and see, they were convinced, and often joined the band of pleaders.

At last the municipality took a few of the worst places in hand, turned out the dense mass of human beings (who all, be it remembered, paid rent for their grottoes, or cellars, or doorways, or gutters), and, after spending huge sums for the right of expropriation, for demolishing, for compensation, they rebuilt some large blocks of houses, well lighted, well ventilated, well drained as far as drainage was possible in Naples. And the first time I returned, the then Mayor of Naples, a hearty, genial, benevolent man, invited me to visit the "grand new quarter." After viewing it, and inquiring the rent paid, I asked what had become of the "old inhabitants." "Oh! of those we know nothing," was the answer. "When we turned them out, we gave some of them a week's rent, and, of course, they found other lodgings." Some of them I tracked, and found that they had done so, but that their last state was worse than their first, because, not only were their places of residence worse, many of them being doomed to the nightly lodging-houses, but they had been obliged to remove so far from their work that they were reduced in many cases literally to starvation. The horrors that were revealed by the invasion of cholera stirred the hearts of the nation. Naples was to be *disembowelled*. The National Parliament voted fifty millions immediately, and promised other fifty—this in the year 1884–1885. Naples was to be supplied with pure water, was to be drained; the poor of Naples were to be housed in airy, decent dwellings. The city has been benefited decidedly by the introduction of the waters of the Serino (at an enormous cost, thanks to the system of contracts adopted), but pure, fresh water in Naples is a luxury and at the same time a necessity which cannot be too dearly paid for. The attempt to drain Naples is a far more difficult task, owing to the old system of sewers introduced by the Bourbons. The drains received at one and the same time the rain-water and all the contents of the cesspools; and as their inclination was insufficient the filth was not carried down and into the sea, but generally stagnated in the adjacent streets, filtering into the wells, and in reality causing the putrid fever for which Naples has been so maligned. It would be absurd to pretend that the accumulated errors of ages could be corrected in a few years. If only such attempts as have been made are honest, it is so much gained; but the dishonesty of contractors is so proverbial that, without a very sharp system of impartial inspection on the part of the Government and of the local authorities, very few Neapolitans would like to stake much on the results.

What a mere visitor to Naples can see at a glance is, that the city is being transformed: new public gardens, new, grand streets, new blocks of splendid buildings, have arisen as by magic. In some portions of the city the level of the soil has been raised. Not only the money voted by Government is being spent, but the province, the municipality, numerous societies, and, of course, the old house-owners are busily building and beautifying. In two single years the Società del Risanimento has demolished 88,261 square metres of houses; and when we remember that some of these consisted of five, eight, even eleven stories, we may calculate the displacement of human beings that has taken place. Prof. Villari puts the question:

"While we see new palaces, ample streets, elegant shops, splendid restaurants, and cafés-chantants, what has been done for the poor and for their habitations? No one imagines, I suppose, that the nation has made such great sacrifices for the wealthy classes, and for the embellishment of their city?"

In the next paragraph he answers it, and as he has been silent on the question for the last half-dozen years at least, satisfied to have set *the movement going, hoping probably against* hope that a beginning of the solution of the question of "misery" would be made, his answer, after personal reinspection, is terribly significant:

"This is the black spot. It will seem an exaggeration, but I am certain, as are the greater part of the Neapolitans with whom I have conversed, not only that the conditions of the poor have not been ameliorated, but that they have grown from bad to worse. One of the most arduous problems in all great cities has always been and is the housing of the poor. Never, so far as I know, has that problem been solved by private speculation. At Naples, especially, where space is so scanty, the ground so dear, the population so dense, the *populace so poor, it is simply ridiculous to hope* that private speculation could, on the very smallest scale, solve the problem. It is materially impossible to construct tolerable houses for the poor at prices which they can pay, and at the same time repay the builders. And where are there commercial societies that will build at a loss? What happens is well known. The poor do not enter the new buildings—they remain in their hovels; and when, as now happens, these hovels are demolished by the pickaxe, then the poor herd re-den (*rintanano*) in ever-increasing numbers in the hovels that remain, thus making their conditions worse; or many families crowd into one room in the new buildings, which become *fondaci*, often worse than those demolished, because, being dear, more people must be crowded into less space.

"The most elementary duty of humanity, the commonest prudence, therefore, ought to have convinced those who have studied the problem of the necessity of making a special contract with the Società del Risanimento for the housing of the poor, ceding a portion of the 100,000,000 of capital as dead loss, fixing the rent to be paid at lowest prices, and adding other favorable arrangements for the benefit of the poor. But whether it was owing to the haste, after such long waiting, or the vain hope that the Society, having gained so much on one side, would be willing to lose on the other, this proposition, which was made by one of the counsellors of the Neapolitan municipality (Parlati), was rejected. It was stipulated that houses for the poor should be built, but as a part of the speculation. Thus, the Society that assumed the works placed on one side the interests of the poor, on the other the interest of the capital employed in the works. If we add the gains of the contractors and the sub-contractors, the inevitable consequences will appear clear to all. The bad financial condition of the corporation is no excuse. When the nation voted its millions to ameliorate the hygienic conditions of Naples, it meant some of those millions to be used exclusively for the poor, for whose benefit the law was exclusively passed."

Villari then comments on the error committed in building a sort of workmen's quarter to house the plebs:

"Waiving the discussion as to the opportuneness, from a social point of view, of segregating the working classes from other classes of citizens, the system can only have a chance of success in cities which possess great factories and a real working-class population earning decent salaries. . . . But when you have to deal with the *maruzzaro*, the *carnacottaro*, the *pizzaiuolo* (shell-fish, cooked-meats, and cake-sellers); . . . with an infinite series of microscopic trades which don't deserve the name of industries; with a multitude which lives from hand to mouth, selling edibles, string, pitch, fishermen's nets, earning a halfpenny for some trifling service—the transferring all these poor creatures from the scene of their labors is simply to deprive them of the simplest possibility of existence. To say to the people of the districts of Mercato, Porto, Pendino, who precisely in those poorest quarters leave their children in some hole or other, and ply their trades in the street in the open air, 'Go and live in another quarter,' is an irony, an insult to their misery. Yet it is for this population that a roof must be found; it is the problem of housing these people that had to be solved, and the solution of which is not commenced."

The Professor, whose residence as chief of the Superior Institute is at Florence, shows how the same problem presented itself in the City of Flowers when the old market was demolished. Then a society of benevolent persons was formed, $150,000 subscribed, and eighty houses for the poor completed, while other forty are being erected. The municipality of that city puts down $16,000 annually for the purpose, and I can add from personal knowledge that the assessors of the corporation always manage to find a room or rooms at the same price paid for the poor in the houses from which they have been ejected. And it is to public charity that Senator Villari appeals for housing the poor of Naples. He devotes the rest of this eloquent article to descriptions of the quarters personally inspected by himself, not omitting the maledictions invoked on the heads of the demolishers.

Hitherto such subjects as the sanitary conditions of Naples, the introduction of water, the exclusion of sewerage, this vital question of the housing of the poor, have been debated with all the bitterness and acrimony of party politics. It was not sought who would do the work best at the lowest price, but the friends of which political party should get the job. Again, the burden of the expenses ought to fall on the house-owners and the receivers of ground-rents; but it seems all the world over that this class of proprietors are more tenderly dealt with than any other class. Take the action of the London County Council, from which, fortunately, politics are excluded: the enormous scheme for the demolition of houses thickly built over fifteen acres of land in the Bethnal and Shoreditch District has been voted by the majority under the first part of the new bill for housing the poor, and the entire expense consequently falls upon the County Council, ultimately upon the rate-payers. The owners of the houses condemned and the receivers of the ground-rent, who have been for years untold and from generation to generation receiving rack-rents for many places quite unfit for human habitation, will be the real recipients of the sums voted. Had the Council instead seen fit to bring their scheme under the second part of the new act, the house-owners would have been compelled to repair, to pull down buildings run up in back-yards, and at their own expense render the dwellings fit for human habitation.

I visited the whole quarter with the kind, able, and thoroughly devoted head doctor of the County Council, and could not help exclaiming several times, "Ah, if you could only transport a few of these condemned houses to Naples!" Then he explained that the decision to bring the area under the first

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part of the Act was arrived at owing to the enormous death-rate of the entire district. Of course, he said, we could force this and that landlord to do his duty, but the district is fouled, and there is no help but in total demolition. Any one comparing the housing of the poor in London to-day with even twenty years ago cannot fail to be astounded at the improvements. These are owing vastly if not mainly to the Peabody legacy, and now people are beginning to see that it does pay to build decent lodgings for the poor. I am surprised to find magnificent blocks of houses with one good room, with grate, large window, water, and use of closet with key, for three shillings a week; three rooms, all with fireplaces, cupboards, picture-rails, gas, water, sink, and closet on the landing, for seven shillings per week. Take, for instance, the Shaftsbury Park buildings: all these conveniences are to be had, with washing-houses, hot and cold water, and drying terraces on the roof. The inmates must obey certain regulations, one of which is that they may not underlet, may not take lodgers; thus overcrowding is avoided.

I do not, therefore, despair of Naples. The sad feature there is that wages are so low and employment so uncertain that it is useless to talk of any scheme that shall add one centime to the expenses. There, also, of charity organized by religious bodies there is none. I never once met a priest by the bedside of the sick or the dying save when summoned with the viaticum; you never see them in underground Naples. Nor do ladies, with rare exceptions, employ themselves among the poor. We may fain hope that the new law on charitable institutions may be brought to bear on their case, and, as there is no poor-law in Italy, appeals to individual charity ought to receive more response than they do. Prof. Villari will assuredly have awakened in many an answering chord, for no one can dispute his facts or accuse him of exaggeration or of "sensational" pictures. J. W. M.

Correspondence.

HOAR VS. HOAR.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *North American Review* of February, 1879, Senator Hoar has an article on "The Conduct of Business in Congress," which is excellent reading in the light of recent events. Speaking of the elevation of the Whigs to power in 1841, he says:

"Mr. Clay was leader of the Whig party in Congress. His lordly and imperious nature chafed under the incessant and vigorous attacks of his Democratic antagonists on the one hand, and the refusal of the executive branch of Government to submit to his dictation on the other. . . . In regard to every one of the great subjects of legislation, the Whigs attempted to exercise national powers which had never been used or had long lain dormant. The Democrats encountered every measure with the charge that it violated the Constitution, and that it was legislating for the rich against the poor."

After speaking of the limitation and closing of debate in the House, Senator Hoar proceeds as follows:

"As soon as the new rule had been adopted in the House, and the peaceable submission of the majority ascertained, Mr. Clay gave notice of his purpose to introduce it in the Senate. Fortunately for the Senate, fortunately for the country, he encountered a very different spirit from that which prevailed in the lower branch. . . . Mr. Clay flinched before this resolute resistance, and in a day or two abandoned his project. The Democratic leaders did not overrate the injurious consequences to public liberty of the suppression of debate and amendment at the will of the majority. The suppression of these in one branch of the National Legislature renders infinitely more important their preservation in the other. Mr. Clay and his associates seem to have been acting under the pressure of temporary exigency, and to have given little consideration to the grave and far-reaching consequences which their scheme involved. It is probable that the debate would have so fully exhibited the evil effects of the previous question on the Senate that Mr. Clay would have lost his slender majority before the vote; if not, the attitude taken by the Democratic party towards the rule would have assured its early repeal."

The Senator closes his article with the lament that "the House is losing its freedom of debate, of amendment, even of knowledge of what it is itself doing." Yet under the fear that the intelligence of the North has repudiated his party, he is willing to bring all the evils he has described on the Senate, and also override the constitutional rights of the States, in order to haul enough negroes from the swamps of Louisiana to bolster up the G. O. P. for another four years. The Senator's prophetic eye must have been looking forward to Reed when he wrote: "If we could in some way secure a Speaker who should be absolutely independent of party, it would be a great gain."

When Senator Hoar wrote the article in question, he evidently considered himself a statesman. But since he has assumed the rôle of a politician, he must be convinced that it is much better for the politician to follow the example of the "silent Senator" from Pennsylvania and never give expression to embarrassing truths. T. F. Hamblin.

Lewisburgh, Penna., January 31, 1891.

HONEST FARMERS, AND OTHERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your correspondent, Mr. Jessup, as well as some other writers who, in one paper or another, have commented on my recent communication (No. 1333 of the *Nation*) on the subject of farm mortgages payable in gold, have apparently assumed that my letter was prompted by hostility to the farmers, and I have been served with a number of admonitions, like Mr. Jessup's, that the farmers are a very worthy class. Having myself been brought up on a farm, I should be the last person in the world to question such a conclusion. Nor, I submit, ought it to be considered an evidence of hostility that one calls their attention to the fact that they are making, or are liable to make, a bad bargain.

As to the moral aspect of a legislative scaling-down of obligations, no doubt many debtors are in favor of coining eighty cents' worth of silver into a dollar and paying their debts with it, who are not consciously dishonest. It is only by applying the legal rule that one is presumed to foresee the natural consequences of his own acts, that such people can be called dishonest. This may be a violent presumption to apply to the modern farmer—many things seem to indicate that it is; but when any one claims for the farmers an exceptional degree of honesty, I am forced, at least so far as regards public and official honesty, to differ from him. The claim that farmers are more honest than other classes of the community, and that if the Government were turned over to them we should have, at all events, honesty, even if we had some incompetency, is familiar, but it is cant.

As is well known, the Farmers' Alliance, at the recent election in Minnesota, secured a plurality of the Legislature, and, by a combination with the Democrats, is now in full control of both houses of the Legislature. Since they came into power the air has resounded with the noise of radical reforms and the introduction of "honest" methods of administration. "Corporate greed" was to be throttled, the "money power" was to be downed, and all the wicked devices of railroads, lawyers, and other knaves were to be checkmated at last. With regard to lawyers, it is a cardinal principle of the Alliance that no lawyer can enter the kingdom of heaven, much less an Alliance lodge. Now see how virtue fell! On the 2d inst., in the House of Representatives, there came up for consideration a bill to prohibit the acceptance of free passes or other gifts from railroads by members of the Legislature. This method of bribery has been in vogue from time immemorial in the Western States; but I never heard an intelligent man claim that the practice was anything less than virtual bribery. This bill was defeated in the House by a vote of 32 to 37. Of those voting, thirty-five were farmers, of whom nineteen voted for the bill and sixteen against. Of eight lawyers who voted, six were recorded for the bill and only two against.

Then a truce to this talk about the preëminent honesty of farmers. Farmers do not differ essentially in moral fibre from other classes of the community. Honest people are those who scorn bribes, be they farmers, merchants, or even lawyers. Howard L. Smith.

St. Paul, Minn., February 5, 1891.

EUROPEAN PEASANTRY AT THE WEST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Forum* for February there is an article in which Prof. Rodney Welch complains of a tendency of the farming population of some Western States, notably Illinois and Wisconsin, to sink to the level of a European peasantry. The Professor's observations are hardly in accordance with the facts. True it is that there are entire counties in these States which are settled almost exclusively by immigrants from Europe and their immediate descendants. But it is not true that these immigrants form a peasantry in the European sense. Any one who sees the peasant immigrants upon their arrival in this country and observes the same people ten years after they have settled on their new homesteads, will notice the difference. Furthermore, the regions to which Prof. Welch seems principally to refer were settled forty and more years ago. During that time these immigrants, being intelligent and mostly comparatively well educated, have acquired considerable knowledge of American institutions, and it is most emphatically untrue that they are citizens in nothing but name, as the Professor asserts. Although they use their mother tongue in their homes and churches, their children rapidly acquire a preference for the English language, and the old folks themselves are constant readers of the weekly editions of the great German papers published in the large cities. These papers are quite as good as the weekly editions of the English papers, and a man cannot read them for years without becoming pretty familiar with things American.

Prof. Welch complains of the tendency of farmers of New England antecedents to leave their farms, and takes it for granted that this tendency implies a deterioration of the condition of agriculture. The truth is, that the German who succeeds the New Englander is a much better farmer than the latter. When he acquires possession of the land, it is generally in poor condition, for the former owner cared

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exclusively to get the largest immediate returns, but was unmindful of the danger of ruining the fertility of the soil. These worn-out lands are often restored to almost their former productiveness by the skill and industry of their new owners. It is true, the latter is a plain farmer and not a "country gentleman." But no more was his Yankee predecessor, whatever Prof. Welch may say to the contrary. The race of country-gentlemen never existed in appreciable numbers either in New England or in the Northwestern States.

It must be owned, also, that the German farmers do not send so many of their sons to college as their Yankee neighbors do. But this is not an unmixed evil, as it may be one of the causes why the tendency to move into the cities, while by no means absent, is not so large among Western farmers of German extraction as it is among those of New England parentage. ERNEST BRUNCKEN.

MILWAUKEE, WIS.

AN EARLY PORTRAIT BY HARDING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Among the incidents of my childhood, so remote as to seem a figment of imagination, is one of having gone with my father to a studio in the little village of Edwardsville, Illinois, early in the third decade of this century, when Indians were my playmates, and buffaloes might have been seen any day on the streets, yoked with oxen, bringing the scant produce of the pioneer farmers to the "store" to barter for supplies. The studio—an unfurnished upper room in the town tavern—was Harding's, a biographical notice of whom appears in your number of the 22d inst. My father sat to him, and the portrait was sent to his sister in Kentucky. Some years afterwards my mother visited this sister with her little girl, two and a half years old, took her into the parlor and showed her several portraits of members of the family. When she came to this one of Harding's, the child exclaimed, "Why, that is my papa!"

I have studied *con amore* all of the public and many private galleries of Europe, from Seville to St. Petersburg, and I do not exaggerate when I say that for fidelity of expression and flesh tints—my father had a florid complexion—this piece of frontier work would not suffer by comparison with those of far more renowned artists. F. W. T.

LOS ANGELES, CAL., January 30, 1891.

Notes.

HARPER & BROTHERS have nearly ready 'Sir Robert Peel' in their series of biographies of Queen Victoria's prime ministers.

D. Appleton & Co. publish immediately a translation, by Mrs. Mary J. Serrano, of Valera's novel, 'Doña Luz.'

Fords, Howard & Hulbert will bring out the novel written in collaboration by George Cary Eggleston and Dofores Marbourg, entitled 'Juggernaut: A Veiled Record.'

A novel by Francis Howard Williams, 'Atman; The Documents in a Strange Case,' is in the press of Cassell & Co.

Worthington Co. announce for immediate publication 'Adventures on the Mosquito Shore,' by E. G. Squier. This is the sub-title of a work now some thirty-five years old, 'Waikna.'

Robert Clarke & Co., Cincinnati, have in press reprints of Withers's 'Chronicles of Border Warfare: A History of the Settlement by the Whites of Northwestern Virginia,' etc. (1831); Haywood's 'Civil and Political History of Tennessee,' from its settlement to the year 1796 (1823), and the same author's 'Natural and Aboriginal History of Tennessee' (1823). Also a new work, 'Beginnings of Literary Culture in the Ohio Valley,' by W. H. Venable.

An older work, Miss Edgeworth's 'Stories for Children,' has just been added to Bohn's Standard Library (New York: Scribner & Welford). The type and print are excellent and the price very moderate.

Macmillan & Co. begin the issue of the third edition of the invaluable Cambridge Shakespeare, edited by William Aldis Wright, in nine volumes octavo, with a beautifully printed page in large clear type, making this the most agreeable to the eye of any we have seen in the long series of editions of Shakspere. The edition aims only to fix the text, and is free from notes of any other sort than such as give the history of emendation and conjecture in the briefest form. It thus presents the textual labors of all editors in connection with a text of its own, unrivalled for sound judgment and thorough editorship. It will be issued in quarterly volumes, at the very moderate price of $3 each.

'A Dictionary of Idiomatic English Phrases,' by James Main Dixon (T. Nelson & Sons), owes its origin to the experience of its author as a teacher of English in Japan, and derives its character from that fact. The phrases are such as would be puzzling to a foreigner learning the language, but the greater part present no difficulty to a native. The author divides them into classes—good prose, conversational, familiar, and slang; and with his classification one might find much fault. By "familiar," he says, he means phrases "used in familiar conversation, but not admissible in polite society"; and under this head we find, for example, the Latin phrase "Cui bono"! What the author's standard of "polite society" is, one cannot very well determine, but it is certainly a strangely fastidious "society" that taboos such expressions as "to get one's sea-legs on," "a fish out of water," "fie," "dog-cheap," "in the dumps," "he will be the death of me," "to let the cat out of the bag," "to toe the mark," "Uncle Sam" (but "John Bull" is down as "good prose"), "Jack o'Lantern," and many other phrases almost as old as the language. Unless we are to talk without metaphors of the proverbial sort at all, and without short expressive phrases born with our tongues, it is hard to say how conversation is to go on by such standards in "polite society." The author's citations, we observe, are largely from the current works of his generation, and show no thorough acquaintance with historical English. The book seems to be of most value for the foreigner who desires explanation of idiomatic expressions, but can be of little service to those who have learned to speak English as a mother-tongue.

In 'Japan: A Sailor's Visit to the Island Empire' (New York: J. B. Alden), an American, Capt. M. B. Cook of Friendship, Maine, gives his impressions of a recent and evidently very enjoyable visit to constitutional Japan. The three chief cities and the two larger ports seem to have comprised his itinerary, so that little outside the familiar track of all travellers was seen. He has utilized his reading of American and other books on Japan, but in his didactic chapters is not especially interesting. More pleasurable are his impressions of the people and their outdoor life and amusements, and of the gentle charm of the native ladies whom he and his party met indoors as well as out. His picture of the promulgation of the Constitution in 1889 and the characteristic popular celebrations is very spirited. One cannot easily tire of a well-told trip to Kioto, and the Captain tells a good story of the pleasant people and things in the "Blossom Capital" and its neighborhood, rich in legend and historical association.

We have received four parts of an illustrated subscription work, 'The Picturesque Mediterranean, its Cities, Shores, and Islands' (Cassell Publishing Company). Well-known artists have in the main well executed the wood-engravings of the most salient features, a full-page illustration prefacing each subject; and equally well-known writers furnish the instructive and attractive descriptive text, which is interspersed with smaller cuts. Part first contains an adequate and not too long description of Gibraltar, together with Tarifa, Tangiers, Ceuta, and the Pillars of Hercules. Smyrna and Marseilles follow at greater length in the second and third parts, the descriptions being thoroughly in the spirit of those places. In the third and fourth parts Corsica, and a portion of the less well-known southern Syrian coast, with its great past, are pictured and well described. The article on Corsica agreeably and forcibly brings to mind the many fascinations of that island. One wonders why it is that this charming spot is not more favored by the large class of health and change-seekers always yearning for new fields within easy reach. There is here an abundance of grand scenery in mountains, valleys, and slopes looking on a lovely sea; a wild, luxuriant vegetation; fairly good roads; and an absence of those fashionable restrictions and excessive living rates common to the dusty resorts of the Riviera. There is also the freshness of rugged nature and a comparatively unchanged and picturesque people; and withal out-of-door possibilities dear to the roving Anglo-Saxon. Nor are good hotels lacking in the larger towns.

Mr. Herbert Ward's 'My Life with Stanley's Rear Guard' (Charles L. Webster & Co.) tells very simply the story of his connection with the Emin Pasha Relief Expedition. It consists mainly of extracts from his note-books, with here and there explanatory paragraphs. He adds nothing new to the sad history, as he was not in the camp at the time of the cannibal feast and Maj. Barttelot's murder. This officer's incompetency, however, is very conclusively shown, but of Mr. Jameson a very pleasant impression is given, as well as a pathetic account of his death. The closing pages are devoted to a reply to Mr. Stanley's personal charges. Some of these are shown to be unfounded, and the rest are met with an explicit denial. Incidentally Mr. Ward throws some rather unfavorable light on the affairs of the Congo Free State. He refers to the "appalling" number of deaths among the officers and European residents, and to a refusal to permit him to go on a steamer by the officer in command, who explained that as he should have hostile operations with the natives in several places, "witnesses would be undesirable."

Neilson's 'Trial by Combat' (Macmillan) is a volume of a kind unfortunately too uncommon in English literature — a painstaking monograph on an interesting subject in the development of social and legal institutions. It would have been better, perhaps, had the author limited his title to the judicial duel in Great Britain, for his introductory chapter on the origin of the wager of battle and its use on the European continent is necessarily but a condensed sketch of a matter admitting of almost unlimited development, and the body of the work is devoted to the vicissitudes of the legal duel in England and Scotland. In this

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Mr. Neilson relies upon the original sources, and gives us the results of much research in MS. records as well as in the printed authorities. He has a keen eye for the picturesque incidents in which his theme abounds, his learning is wholly devoid of pedantry, and his style is lively, so that while the volume is a serious contribution to the history of British legal antiquities, it has ample attractions for the ordinary reader as well as for the historical student.

Dr. W. G. Harris's 'Spiritual Sense of Dante's Divina Commedia' (Appletons) is in the main a lecture delivered at the Concord School of Philosophy in 1886, and is conceived in the comprehensive-of-all-truth style which characterized the School's work in general. The patient and acute reader will find in it the moral and theological aspect of creation considered as a system of divine philosophy and grasped in its totality at once. As a commentary on Dante's poem it will appeal mainly to those who are more at home in commentaries than in poetry.

All that proceeds from the pen of Signore Pasquale Villari, the biographer of Savonarola and Machiavelli, is welcome, and we take pleasure in announcing the appearance of his volume of 'Saggi storici e critici' (Bologna, 1890), a collection of his occasional writings, reprinted mostly from the *Nuova Antologia* and *Rivisto Storico*. There are also two essays from the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' one on Rimini and the Malatesta, and the other on the municipal government of Rome during the middle ages, which condenses in attractive shape an immense amount of curious research. To American readers the most interesting portion of the book is a disquisition on the institutions and society of the United States, based on the work of Prof. Bryce, with occasional reference to De Tocqueville. Of course on such a subject Professor Villari cannot speak from personal observation, but none the less noteworthy is the impression produced on a thoughtful Italian of the highest culture by the discussion of the numerous problems suggested by the development and present condition of our republic. It is needless to add that his views are fair and moderate, though he naturally sometimes fails to appreciate the causes which conduce to the buoyant hopefulness in the future so characteristic of our people.

In the pursuit of notoriety for his *Review of Reviews*, Mr. W. T. Stead has got out a cheap album, filled with process cuts, entitled 'Portraits and Autographs' (New York: Chas. E. Merrill & Co.). Mr. Stead's own portrait, a permanent photographic print, serves as frontispiece, and is the best of the collection. The medley is extreme. Balfour faces Parnell (or, rather, Parnell turns his back on Balfour), and the 136 embrace also Boulanger and Mme. Blavatsky, Gladstone and Salisbury, Huxley and Gen. Booth, Bradlaugh and Canon Liddon, Ignatieff and Henry George, Carmen Sylva and Philippa Fawcett, Mark Twain and John Burns, Josephine Butler and Marie Bashkirtseff, Goschen and Jules Verne, the Pope and John Morley, Henry M. Stanley and Henry Drummond, Zola and Tolstoi, Newman and Rubinstein, Queen Victoria and Frances Willard, Renan and Dr. O. W. Holmes, etc., etc. The group is as interesting as it is mixed, and is worth the enhanced American price (one dollar) against eighteen pence.

Mr. James Parton's 'Captains of Industry' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is a "second series" of forty-eight brief biographies, mostly of Americans, from Gov. Edward Winslow, "the business-man of the Pilgrim fathers," to Amos A. Lawrence, "a solid man of Boston." A few women are enrolled among the "captains," as, for instance, Marguérite Boucicault, the head of the famous Bon Marché of Paris, and Mrs. Coston, the energetic widow of the inventor of the Coston night signals. The sketches are written in the easy, entertaining way which characterizes all Mr. Parton's work, the salient points of interest in the careers described being seized upon with unerring accuracy. The principal, though not the only, lesson taught is the value of industry as a means to success. Few of the "young Americans," however, for whom the author tells us the book is intended, can read it attentively without being impressed with the higher truth that there is a nobler use for money than the amassing it for one's own selfish gratification.

We had occasion recently to mention a valuable monograph on the railroad bridge over the Thames River by the chief engineer, Mr. Alfred P. Boller. His example has been followed by Mr. William R. Hutton, chief engineer of another notable structure, the Washington Bridge over the Harlem River. The handsome quarto volume bearing this title has been put on the market (Leo von Rosenberg, 35 Broadway). The photographic illustrations of the bridge at various stages are very numerous and exhaustive, and not a few are extremely beautiful. The details of construction are shown in a large array of mechanical drawings. The frontispiece shows the central pier, with its immense iron arches springing from either side, contrasting with the all-stone arches of the High Bridge aqueduct in the distance—a contrast of two ages of the builder's art, most interesting to all who travel up or down the shores of the Harlem River. The Washington Bridge was substantially completed in two years and a half.

Several mechanical works are on our table. A 'Text-Book of Mechanics' (D. Van Nostrand & Co.), by Prof. Thomas Wallace Wright, is in all respects worthy of commendation. Its chief merit, however, consists in the very full illustration of each special subject by a number of good and well-chosen examples. There is no other way to teach mechanics thoroughly. Mr. Harold Whiting's 'Short Course of Experiments in Physical Measurement,' Part II. (Cambridge), is one of a large class which have for their object instruction by experiments to be performed by the student himself. It is one of the best and perhaps the most original, much of the apparatus described having been devised by the author. In spite of its numerous competitors, the book deserves and cannot fail to receive a cordial reception. The part before us embraces only Sound, Dynamics, Magnetism, and Electricity. Mr. W. Cawthorne Unwin's 'Elements of Machine Design,' Part I. (Longmans, Green & Co.), forms one of the well-known "Text-Books of Science" series, and the volume before us is the eleventh edition of the work, which first appeared only in one part, but which is now to be extended to two and perhaps to a third. The scope of such a treatise is, of course, very wide. In the words of Reuleaux, the province of machine design is to show how the parts of the machine are to be proportioned so as to resist deformation. The opening chapter relates chiefly to materials; the others to the forms which these materials must take to subserve specific purposes. The remarkable popularity of the work attests its usefulness and excellence.

In the *Harvard Law Review* for January, Mr. John T. Hassam sets forth the advantages of the Australian System of Land Transfer. While it may be conceded that these advantages are considerable, it must be said that under our municipal governments or even State governments the examination of titles could not be wisely intrusted to public officers. Certainly no one would seriously contend that in the city of New York this extremely difficult and technical business should be turned over to Tammany Hall, and the government of none of our large cities is such as to invite this confidence. Much that the system aims at is now obtained through the title-guarantee companies, and their insurance policies afford ample security. From Mr. Hassam's account we do not see that anything would be gained over existing methods upon the devolution of title through descent, devise, or chancery proceedings, while it is an axiom that Government business is more expensively managed than that of private persons. Nor does Mr. Hassam explain what is to be done with our complicated system of liens upon real estate, which, however vexatious to the conveyancer, is yet apparently indispensable to the maintenance of the existing system of credit.

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for January contains a suggestive paper by Prof. Robert K. Douglas, the well-known Chinese scholar, on the commercial relations between Great Britain and China. After a sketch of the various steps by which foreign trade has been brought to its present condition, he shows how little has really been effected in changing the convictions and views of the Chinese as regards Europeans. The marked decline of British trade is then dwelt upon, the returns of the Imperial Maritime Customs showing that since 1866 "our direct trade has declined rather more than one-fourth, while the American trade has increased 40 per cent. and the value of the Continental trade has multiplied twelve times over. In other words, while in 1866 the value of the Continental trade was only one-thirtieth that of ours, last year [1889] it was more than one-half." It may be added here, that in the same time Continental trade, as compared with American, has increased from one-fourth as much to a volume nearly twice as great. This great increase, which has been mostly within the last four years, 1885–1889, Prof. Douglas ascribes mainly to the better commercial education of the Continental merchants and their clerks, especially in the various schools of Oriental languages subsidized by the Governments of Germany, France, Russia, and Austria, but not by that of Great Britain. He also calls attention to the trade springing up between Tonquin and Yunnan, probably the richest province in the Chinese Empire in mineral wealth, with a view to showing the absolute necessity of establishing a connection with Burmah if England is to reap any advantage from this desire for trade on the part of the Yunnanese.

The opening article in the last *Bulletin* of the Société de Géographie is upon the dispute between France and Brazil in respect to the boundary of French Guiana. This is, perhaps, the oldest diplomatic question yet unsettled, the first official negotiations in regard to it having taken place in 1700. France claims a strip of territory running from the ocean about six hundred miles to the Rio Branco, the larger part of which is the "Hinterland" of English and Dutch Guiana. If this claim should ever be established, it would make her possessions nearly four times as great as they now are, with an addition to her coast-line of two hundred and fifty miles, bringing her boundary nearly to the mouth of the Amazon. According to this article, the region in question consists mostly of prairie, well-fitted for European colonization, and with a climate

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like that of Algeria. A glance at the accompanying map shows that the boundaries of the other European colonies in Guiana are equally unsettled, France and Holland contesting a considerable tract, while England claims territory from both Venezuela and Brazil. This is followed by an interesting account of Assini, one of the negro kingdoms of the Ivory Coast under French protection.

We have already described the special large-scale map of Western Asia Minor prepared by Dr. Heinrich Kiepert, and published in fifteen sheets by Dietrich Reimer, Berlin. The second instalment, consisting of Plates 3, 4, 5, 8, and 13, has just come to hand after a delay caused by the prospect of fresh data from Turkish sources, which in the end proved of no great significance. So far as these affect, however, the sheets already issued, Dr. Kiepert gives particulars which will enable any one to make the necessary corrections. The third and final instalment is promised by the end of April.

F. W. Christern sends us the first two issues (December 15, 1890, January 1, 1891) of a novel periodical possessing immediate interest and permanent value for reference. This is the *Revue Encyclopédique*, conducted by Georges Moreau (Paris: Librairie Larousse), and bearing the sub-title, "Recueil documentaire universel illustré." It professes to build on Larousse's 'Grand Dictionnaire,' furnishing a continuous supplement to that great work. In form it is a large quarto, the page in two broad columns, with a handsome variety of type, clear even when small. Illustrations are numerous and admirable. The arrangement is by departments—Music (by Arthur Pougin), Drama (H. Castets), Fine Arts (various hands), Book Reviews, with Law, Politics, Public Works, Medicine, Botany, History, Geography, etc., etc. The biographical sketches and portraits of men and women of the day are very noticeable. All this is ingeniously indexed in a four-page *Index-Journal*, which carries, besides, an independent assortment of current notes, news, and extracts, often articles of no mean length, in alphabetical order. One valuable feature of this *Index-Journal* is an explanation of neologisms, *e. g.*, *streptocoque* (a microbe), *lupus*, *folkloriste*, *Deakiste*, etc. The conception of this magazine seems to us to leave nothing to suggest.

A link between the past and the present has been broken by the death in London of Mrs. Drummond, widow of the famous Under-Secretary, Thomas Drummond, who fell a victim in 1840 to his labors on behalf of the people of the country he had adopted as his own. Mrs. Drummond was the ward of Conversation Sharp, the Miss Kinnaird of Wordsworth's letters to Rogers. She it was who copied out for her husband the letter to the Tipperary magistrates which drew down upon him the hatred of the upper classes in Ireland and the animadversions of the *Times*, because it contained the declaration that "property has its duties as well as its rights." She was a stanch Home-Ruler, particularly attached to John Dillon. Her house in Hyde Park Gardens was the resort of many and various friends who will sincerely mourn her loss.

At the Boston Museum of Fine Arts an exhibition of illustrated books, water-colors, sketches, engravings, etc., by William Blake is now in progress. It will close on March 15.

—Nearly eleven years have elapsed since we noticed the second edition of Maj.-Gen. George W. Cullum's standard work, the 'Biographical Register of the Officers and Graduates of the United States Military Academy.' It then ended with the graduating class of 1867. Meanwhile the author has attained and passed the great age of eighty, and has had the strength and courage, not only to revise his work and extend it to date, but to pass it through the press in a wholly new setting of the type—an ordeal which would appall a much younger man. The new edition fills three large octavo volumes, and issues from the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Gen. Cullum has adhered to his resolution to end the military details of his sketches with the Rebellion, in the case of those who forsook the flag; but he allows place for the civil occupations of ex-Confederates since the close of the war. At the end of vol. iii. is to be found an account of the early history of the West Point Academy; and here, also, are given lists of battles and actions in which the graduates took part, in wars, foreign and domestic, including Indian engagements; a useful list of forts, arsenals, and military posts, past and present, with their location; and a table of civil occupations. In these peaceful pursuits farmers and planters lead (228), civil engineers come next (217); 185 followed the law, the civil service absorbed 170, 158 turned authors, the State militia borrowed 145 officers, 131 found employment as professors and teachers, 121 in mercantile life. It would be superfluous to praise this monument of industry and devotion to the author's Alma Mater. Another hand may continue the 'Register' hereafter, but no one will retraverse the ground so laboriously covered by Gen. Cullum.

—Mr. George Shea has printed a pamphlet with the title, 'Some Facts and Probabilities relating to the History of Johannes Scotus, surnamed Duns, and concerning the genuineness of the Spagnoletto Portrait belonging to the General Theological Seminary of the United States' (Cambridge: Riverside Press). Three other portraits of Duns Scotus, he says, are known, one at Windsor, one in the Bodleian, and one at Merton, and these are all admitted to be copies. The New York picture came from the shop of Mr. John Chaundy in Oxford; Mr. Chaundy had it from a gentleman who "understood that it had been brought into England from the south of France," and this gentleman's family believed it to be the original Spagnoletto. This, it must be confessed, is a somewhat indefinite pedigree. Mr. Shea adds that "the painting is recognized by connoisseurs as a genuine Ribera." Here is the gist of the question. The genuineness of the portrait can be decided on only by experts. We cannot rest on the opinion of unknown "connoisseurs"; if some acknowledged Spagnoletto authority should examine the picture, his decision would carry weight, but for the present, it will be generally felt, opinion must be reserved. The figure of Scotus, as represented in the photograph, is striking, and it will be pleasant if it should prove to be an original Ribera. The sketch of the great schoolman's life in the pamphlet is not carefully done. The author says, for example (p. 17): "So rapid was his advance that in his first year at the University [of Paris] he was appointed Regent of its Theological School." But the title "regent" belonged to any Master of Arts who chose to teach; and though there was a theological "Faculty," and the Sorbonne was in existence in 1304 (when Duns went to Paris), it is doubtful whether there was "a Theological School," for colleges had already been established, and in all of them theological instruction was given. The statement (p. 15) that "upon a vacancy occurring by the removal to Paris of his master, William Varron (A. D. 1301), Scotus was appointed to the chair of Philosophy," has too modern a tone. There was then, properly speaking, no "chair of philosophy" at Merton College; any master might lecture on any or all of the subjects of the curriculum (in which the philosophy of the time was, of course, prominent), and had to trust to his ability to attract pupils. A similar looseness of expression occurs in Mr. W. J. Townsend's 'Great Schoolmen of the Middle Ages.' Why so much space should be given to Erigena, who had nothing to do with Duns, is not clear. Mr. Shea has, however, done well to call attention to the portrait, and it is to be hoped that the authorities of the Union Theological Seminary will submit it to a competent expert who may enlighten us on the question of its genuineness.

—The three articles by Prof. E. P. Morris on the Sentence-Question in Plautus and Terence, which appeared originally in the *American Journal of Philology*, have now been reprinted in a single pamphlet of 116 pages. It forms a most valuable contribution to our knowledge of a syntactical subject that has never before received the attention which it deserved. The mere collection of the 3,000 questions occurring in these two authors would have been in itself a work deserving of the highest gratitude. But they are further arranged and discussed under separate headings, according to their nature as well as to the interrogative particle which introduces them, and, when this has been done, the history of the interrogative sentence, from its earliest stages, is thoughtfully considered. The whole work is done in a most scholarly fashion, and the author richly deserves, and will doubtless receive, the thanks of all students of the classical languages. Writers of new Latin grammars and revisers of old ones will find many things of interest to them in these pages, and will in future have facts and not theories upon which to base the rules which they lay down. To such, Prof. Morris's views upon the particle *an* are especially commended.

—"Nullumst iam dictum, quod non sit dictum prius," says Terence; and this truth may be brought home to any Englishman who would take credit to himself for inventing the term "Disunited States," uttered in the darkest days of the Rebellion. If, on the other hand, he wishes to shift the responsibility, he can do so by alleging a quotation. The name is at least a hundred and six years old; it occurs in the *Annual Register* for 1785 (London: Robinsons), under the heading "Principal Occurrences," p. 52. We read, in July:

"On the 24th inst. Dr. Franklin embarked at Havre, and on the same day landed at Southampton; whence, after taking some refreshment, he embarked for the isle of Wight, where a vessel lay ready to convey him to America. It is said, his presence is there much wanted, to heal the dissentions that universally prevail throughout the disunited states. The singularity of his course has, however, given rise to much speculation."

—No Queen since Mary Stuart, whom she closely resembles, has been so worshipped by blind admirers as the unfortunate sister of George III., Caroline Mathilde. Historians, novelists, and poets have united to assert her innocence and to condemn the heartless cruelty of her enemies. It is refreshing, therefore, to read in the latest work on this subject, C. Blangstrup's 'Christian VII. og Caroline Mathilde,' a cool, impartial, and critical account of this sad episode in Danish history. The author, who has already published several historical sketches of considerable value, has carefully prepared himself for the present task

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by consulting all authorities, printed and unprinted, within his reach, many of the latter of which were only recently made accessible. After an admirable sketch of court life in Europe in the middle of the eighteenth century, Blangstrup proceeds to give a painfully minute account of Christian's childhood and youth, under the severe training of the brutal Reventlow. We here find the clue to his later disgraceful and unhappy life. Separated by indifference and etiquette from his parents' care, and treated with a harshness and lack of sympathy that seem almost impossible, the boy's natural intelligence was almost entirely destroyed, while his fondness for unseemly indulgence was rapidly developed by his miserable companions. The efforts of his tutor, the excellent but weak Reverdil, were of but slight avail in counteracting the temptations surrounding the young prince. The combination of heredity and environment was too strong to be overcome. The account of Caroline Mathilde is the chief source of interest in the book to all but Danish readers, and perhaps even this exception need not be made. Here the author is weakest as regards the early life of the English Princess. A fuller inquiry into Caroline's antecedents and English contemporaries would certainly have aided much in explaining her character. The description of her career after her arrival in Denmark is, on the other hand, as detailed and graphic as the materials would permit.

—Of the Queen's guilt, Blangstrup expresses not the slightest doubt. He even attributes the parentage of the little princess to Struensee. But, while concealing nothing, he brings out clearly all the extenuating circumstances connected with the event. The first of these was the utter indifference of the King, which was more than returned. Christian, who was thoroughly imbued with the spirit of the times with respect to matrimony, frequently declared that he regarded marital fidelity as quite foolish and plebeian. Even when the intimacy between the Minister and his Queen could no longer be disregarded, his theory remained unchanged. The Danish court, furthermore, belonged at that time to the most corrupt and licentious in Europe, and it was quite impossible for the young Queen, with her lively disposition and frivolous temper, to remain unaffected by her daily surroundings. Both by her own frequent expressions and by the cowardly confession of Struensee, she had for several years regarded the latter with feelings warmer than she had ever entertained for her husband. The romantic view of her life is the result partly of the Queen's personal charms and unhappy fate, partly of the unpopularity of her opponents. Romance aside, however, no one will deny the truth of Blangstrup's remark that "her name is among those that cannot be mentioned in Denmark without rousing sad thoughts."

MAGELLAN.

Ferdinand Magellan. By F. H. H. Guillemard. [The World's Great Explorers.] London: Geo. Philip & Son. 1890. 8vo, pp. 356.

FERNÃO DE MAGALHÃES, son of Pedro de Magalhães of Sabrosa, was born in the year 1480, on a day not now discoverable. His family was noble and of the oldest in the kingdom of Portugal. Little is known of his immediate family or early youth, but it has been found that he was made a page of the Queen-Dowager Leonor, widow of Dom João II. In his fifteenth year he became a servitor of the King, Dom Manoel, a monarch eminent for the services he rendered to the maritime interests of Portugal, indefatigable in promoting discovery and navigation, and in spreading Portuguese influence in the Orient. Expeditions towards this end were constantly being fitted out, and in 1504 Fernão applied for leave of absence, bade adieu to court life, and enlisted as a volunteer in the great armada of Don Francisco d'Almeida, at that time preparing to sail for India.

Almeida's fleet was the largest that had hitherto set out for that promised land. Circumstances had shown that the time had come for the appointment of a resident official who should hold the reins of government with a strong hand. To Almeida, as first viceroy of India, fell the task, herculean in difficulty, of organizing and ruling countries and peoples as yet almost unknown to their conquerors; and nobly he fulfilled it. His name, overshadowed by the greater glory claimed for his successor, Albuquerque, is unfamiliar to many of us, but few if any have left the East with cleaner hands and a record more unsullied. Associated with "many gallant men and cavaliers experienced in war," Magellan could not well have begun his Indian experiences under better auspices or with better comrades.

The expedition sailed in March, 1505, and, after various adventures, arrived off the bar of Quiloa, on the coast of Mozambique. Here they were badly received, and without loss of time the city was carried by storm, a fort erected and garrisoned, and in August, 1505, the fleet started for Mombaza, somewhat further north. Here was one of the most important trade centres of the African coast, strongly fortified, and garrisoned by ten thousand Arabs. After severe fighting, this place also was taken, but so politic were the conquerors that victors and vanquished soon became firm friends. Thence the fleet sailed for Archediva near Goa, where it arrived in September, and, after reducing the obstinate rulers of several adjacent provinces, part of the ships were loaded with pepper and spices and despatched to Lisbon, where they arrived May 23, 1506. On the voyage the hitherto unknown eastern coast of Madagascar was discovered.

The Moorish Powers determined to take advantage of the weaker state in which the withdrawal of the fleet had left the Viceroy, and resolved to equip a great armada which should attempt the conquest of the very stronghold and seat of government of their enemies. This plot was revealed to the Portuguese by an Italian traveller, Ludovico Vartema, who escaped from Calicut. The naval battle that ensued, off the Malabar coast, was one of the most celebrated fought by the Portuguese in India, and resulted in the overwhelming defeat of the assailants, who lost more than 3,600 men, against seventy or eighty Portuguese killed and two hundred wounded. Among the latter was Magellan. On his recovery he was sent to Sofala, leaving the Viceroy apparently well established in his power after the crushing defeat inflicted on the Orientals. On his return affairs were changed. The Sultan of Egypt had joined forces with the adversary to defend his Eastern commerce threatened by the Portuguese establishment. A naval force under Dom Lourenço, the son of Almeida, had been defeated, and the wounded commander sank with his shattered vessel, after desperate resistance. In December, 1508, Albuquerque arrived to succeed Almeida, but the latter declined to give up his command until he had avenged himself. Magellan is supposed to have been with him on the *Holy Ghost*, commanded by Nuño vaz Pereira. The fleet of nineteen ships descended upon Dabul and destroyed it so completely as to give rise to a Moorish proverb, "May the vengeance of the Franks overtake you, as it overtook Dabul." Next at Diu the Portuguese encountered a force of more than a hundred sail, which, after desperate fighting, was defeated with the loss of three or four thousand men. This dear-bought victory cost many killed, and again among the wounded was found Magellan. But the power of the Portuguese in India was fairly and indisputably established.

In August, 1509, Magellan sailed with Diego Lopez de Sequeira for Malacca, where the ship arrived in September, and by the carelessness of the commander the whole expedition was nearly betrayed to their ruin. Magellan's courage and presence of mind did much to retrieve the disaster. By the rescue of Francisco Serrão, he established a bond of friendship which at a later time rendered possible the great voyage of circumnavigation that has made his name immortal. Into the Indian service of Magellan, romantic and successful as it was, including the capture of Malacca, the discovery and conquest of the Spice Islands, it is impossible to go further at this time. But we may note that the establishment of Serrão at Ternate, and the information of richer countries beyond sent by him to Magellan, formed, it may be safely conjectured, no slight inducement to that voyage which proved the final undertaking of this illustrious navigator, and upon which his reputation in these days is chiefly founded.

About 1512 Magellan had returned to his native land, where he remained for nearly a year, officially a member of the King's household, but not necessarily resident in it. It was the custom that the gentlemen of this connection should receive a stipend, which, though merely nominal in value, served as an index to their rank and position. Osorio tells us that "each person was esteemed the more noble according to the amount of salary that he received." In July, 1512, Magellan was promoted, receiving a stipend of 1,200 milreis, equivalent to about three dollars and a half a day, in the modern value of the coins, but having a much greater value in those days. In 1513 he formed one of an expedition against the Moors of Morocco, where he was so wounded in the leg by a lance as to remain ever after somewhat lame. A year later he became involved in difficulties which resulted in loss of the royal favor and the refusal of desired advancement. The situation was such that it was evident that, so far as his king and country were concerned, his career was over. He was unemployed, and likely to remain so.

Barros has recorded that, shortly after this time, Magellan wrote to Serrão in the Moluccas to tell him that he would be with him soon, "if not by way of Portugal, then by way of Spain." There can be no doubt that for a long time, possibly ever since his Malaccan experiences, the project of reaching the Spice Islands by the western route had been impressed upon his mind. That it was this project which he laid before Dom Manoel is almost certain. All we know is, that his plans met with a cold refusal. At seven and thirty, a born leader of men, of varied Oriental experience, a master of the art of navigation, his mind filled with his project, he found himself condemned to a life of obscurity and inaction. To a man of Magellan's character and training but one course lay open, and that course he took. Bidding adieu for ever to Portugal, he publicly denaturalized himself, and, passing into Spain, entered the service of the Emperor Charles V. This action drew

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down upon him a perfect storm of abuse and invective, the more unjust because such was common usage at the time; Columbus, Cabot, and Vespucci being three of many instances.

Hardly a quarter of a century before, King João II. had regarded Columbus as a boasting and ridiculous adventurer. Now Magellan learned from his successor that "he might do as he pleased." The discovery of the New World and the circumnavigation of the globe are the two greatest achievements of geographic history, but Portugal, which had both within her grasp, cannot claim the glory of either. Magellan could scarcely have met with kinder or more influential protectors than those who welcomed him to Seville. Here he married, in 1517, Beatriz Barbosa, the daughter of his friend and host. Passing over the long series of preliminary struggles, it may be said, in brief, that on the 23d of February, 1518, an agreement was signed which bound the navigator to the service of the Emperor on the projected voyage. It is to be noted that Magellan has become Spanish even to his signature. Fernão de Magalhães has ceased to exist, and we make acquaintance for the first time with Fernando Magallanes.

In spite of Portuguese intrigues, promises, and threats, and a thousand other difficulties, on the 20th of September, 1519, the little fleet cleared the river and set forth on its memorable voyage. For an account of the first circumnavigation the reader must be referred to Dr. Guillemard's scholarly and readable volume. It must suffice to state here that on the 21st of October, 1520, Magellan discovered the strait which bears his name. In defiance of hunger, scurvy, mutiny, and losses by treason and stress of navigation, he pressed onward across the broad Pacific, and, on the 6th of March, 1521, sighted the Ladrones Islands. On the 18th the first of the Philippines was discovered. On the 27th of April, at Mactan, near Sebu, Magellan lost his life in a conflict with the natives, brought on by too great confidence in his own unaided judgment. His son died in September, 1521, and in March of the succeeding year the wife Beatriz followed him. Though the navigator bears a reputation for untarnished honor, and was charged with no act of cruelty in an age of cruelties, his memory was execrated in his native land as that of a traitor. His wife's connections, after the death of her father, were deprived by the Spanish crown of the heritage which would naturally have come to them, and cried, from the depths of poverty, for justice, but in vain. Such was the gratitude of princes.

The book is well printed, and illustrated with a wealth of engravings and maps of such a quality as is only too rare. Giving as it does not only a picture of the navigator, but a delineation of the little world in which he moved, it will be welcome alike to the student of history and the lover of adventure.

RECENT FICTION.

Two Loyal Lovers. A Romance. By Elizabeth Winthrop Johnson. F. A. Stokes Co.

Her Great Ambition. By Anne Richardson Earle. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

Gilbert Elgar's Son. By Harriet Riddle Davis. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

With Fire and Sword. By Henryk Sienkiewicz. Translated from the Polish by Jeremiah Curtin. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.

Ekkehard. By Joseph Victor von Scheffel. Gottsberger & Co.

THE historical romance 'Two Loyal Lovers' serves no true purpose. It has too bitter a flavor for entertainment; and while the incidents and characters are doubtless true to life as it existed in the South more than a quarter of a century ago, the recalling of them in this form, merely for remembrance, is hardly an excuse for being. History and biography afford more fitting memorials. In a note at the end of the volume the author claims that these records are "too precious to be put aside under any lazy pretences of 'forgetting and forgiving.'" But as the labor of reconstruction is an existing and a necessary one, in which North and South must join, it may be well to bear in mind an old proverb, "The mill will never grind with the water that is past."

One would naturally expect, from the title 'Her Great Ambition,' to be introduced to a heroine possessing rather more than the average woman's force of character. Disappointed in this, we turn to meet the other *dramatis personæ*, whose action may have thwarted the heroine's ambition—that of becoming a great artist; but with one exception, and that not a notable one, they are flimsy creations. The whole thing lacks color, not only in the portrayal of the characters, but in the geographical outlines, which have an exasperating vagueness; like the conventional drop-curtain in a provincial theatre, the mountains, valleys, and streams might belong to almost any quarter of the globe. The author seems to be trying to revive the fast-dying sentiment that a woman with an ambition for art in any form must necessarily lose her power for personal affection; but with a heroine whose inherent weakness of character is the principal cause of her failure, and who does not even know whether she tried to end her troubles by drowning, or accidentally fell into the river, the only resource left is to marry her off as speedily as possible and say nothing more about her great ambition.

A quotation from "Twelfth Night" on the title-page,

> "I am all the daughters of my father's house,
> And all the brothers too,"

gives the keynote of 'Gilbert Elgar's Son,' for Robin Elgar was the daughter of a Maryland farmer who, fond of fox-hunting and good-comradeship, had allowed his once fine estate to fall into decay. His lament for a son who would restore "Airlie" to its former flourishing condition kindles in the susceptible heart of the girl an intense desire to take the place of the brother who had died before her birth. This desire, in a nature like Robin's, henceforward shapes her action; and she takes a relative called "Cousin" Dick by courtesy, living on an adjoining estate, as her ideal. She rebels against the little country school, and by good fortune falls into the hands of a man of original ideas, from whom she receives a training usually given only to boys. Sharing her father's outdoor pursuits, she becomes an exceptionally expert horsewoman, and, with superb health of mind and body, is well-equipped when the necessity arises, through the death of her father, to take a son's place beside her invalid mother. There was need for all Robin's well-trained energies, and with sound judgment she lays out her course, and toils unremittingly side by side with her men, sowing, reaping, harvesting. Meanwhile Cousin Dick, who has been abroad for many years absorbed in scientific pursuits, learns, through a chance meeting with a recent visitor at his old home, of the situation of his kinswomen, and, acting upon a chivalrous impulse, returns to pay off the debts and take the helm. But his offer of pecuniary aid meets with a sturdy refusal, and in despair he offers himself, to be indignantly rejected.

The story abounds in pleasant pictures of country life in the part of Maryland settled by the Friends. The description of a gathering of the neighborhood "Horticultural" at Airlie is interesting. The young hostess, as womanly as the gentlest of dove-colored Friends, is unexpectedly called upon to "say something" in place of an absent essayist, and gives modestly and naturally her own blank-verse translation of the Georgics; while her hard-won success as a farmer is warmly commented on by the farmers present. One wishes that the author had omitted the well-worn arguments on taxation without representation, introduced towards the end of the book. The story of such a woman as Robin Elgar, with powers so well trained to carry out a heroic purpose, does not need to be bulwarked by argument.

'With Fire and Sword,' by "the first of Polish novelists," has already, we are told, won a wide popularity in Europe. Mr. Curtin's able and spirited translation is now before the public, and has assuredly done for the work whatever is to be done towards fairly presenting it to American readers. The novel deals with an exciting episode in Polish history, the dreadful rising in 1648 of the Cossacks, under Hmelnitski, against the Commonwealth of Poland, Lithuania, and parts of Russia. The Cossacks joined forces with the Tartars, and the allies carried desolation into Poland in a series of fearful battles, of which that of Berestechko, which terminates the present book, though a victory for the Poles, caused "the victors themselves to be terrified at their work." This period of the rebellion, lasting over four years, constitutes the first act of the long drama created by Hmelnitski, which, after victories and defeats, culminated in the downfall of the Commonwealth.

The campaigns of the terrible Hmelnitski and the no less terrible Prince Yeremi Vishnyevetski of the Commonwealth form the subject of Sienkiewicz's romance. A beautiful princess, many times taken prisoner and as many times freed by knightly rescuers, furnishes the needful *ewig Weibliche*. Around the figures of the two commanders, which gleam luridly from the canvas, stands a group of wonderfully well-defined knights and warriors. Most prominent of all, Zagloba—sot and braggart, "an evil tongue but a golden heart," befriended by the Fates, his every act of cowardice turned into seeming heroism, whining at danger, but facing it for love of friend and country; swearing, swilling, toasting, whimpering, but ever accomplishing; wit and bully, a Falstaff for greed and swagger, a Prospero for tender care of the beautiful Helena—is a creation of which any author might be proud, and from whom, notwithstanding the gruesome places through which one has accompanied him, one parts with affection and regret. The deeds of these knights in the bloody adventures of war and the equally bloody adventures of rescue fill in the historical outlines. A score of minor characters are painted with fidelity and skill, each one bristling with the rude and vigorous life of the time.

It would be unreasonable to expect a pastoral to be made out of a story of revolt among a half-civilized mob in the seventeenth century; but we frankly confess that to us the book seems unnecessarily loaded with horrors. If history did impale its war-victims on stakes, at least the author might have spared us the sight. Fire and sword are in fact domestic pets beside the atrocities with which every page reeks. We shall also, at the risk of ap-

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pearing weakly Anglo-Saxon, venture to remark that 776 pages of closely printed octavo devoted to battles, to the drinking of "gorailka," and to adventures compared with which those of 'The Cloister and the Hearth' are kindergarten tales, smack of overplus, and are at times distinctly tedious. Yet many an eye will moisten for brave Podbipienta; and in hinting at the possibility of a tear on the eight-hundredth page of an historical romance we consider that we have borne eloquent testimony to the power of this author.

'Ekkehard,' long dear to the German heart, and read throughout the length and breadth of Germany, wherever a library, or a fireside, or a school-room abides, has found its way to our shores in an excellent translation, put into two convenient little volumes—a well-advised sop to the Cerberus of American incapacity to endure the long, the large, the much. If we cannot quite feel that it is worthy to be the national novel of a great people, the classic which it is almost a blasphemy to have translated, it must certainly be said that it ranks as an agreeable story—or collection of episodes strung with skill and taste upon a thread of history—and that we have a pictorial presentment of the tenth century, with figures alive with tone and energy. Cowled monks talking in Latin, writing pompous manuscripts and guzzling sour wine; cloister pupils making double-rhymed hexameters; merry goose-maidens; Hunnish warriors and ladies fair, make up the personages in a pretty drama that shows to "the very age and body" of this time "the form and pressure" of that. The warm, human heart of the tenth century is brought very close to that of the nineteenth; its virtues and faults are not widely different, though the former are practised on simpler, narrower, straighter lines; and the latter ride rough-shod and spare not. The author has happily "amalgamated heaven and hell," which Carlyle reprehends, but which is essential to a true picture of life in any century. The saints sin, the sinners play the hero. These are real human beings, leading real lives, for all their musty learning and barbarous customs. Nor has the poet, in becoming an historian and an analyst of human motive, forgotten to be a poet. The fair light of fancy plays upon his pages, now and then flashing into a veritable moment of poetry. If we say that we think Waltari's great epic poem might better have been postponed to a separate volume, we are only saying that fiction may well illustrate the literary history of a century, but should hardly be the text-book. If we say that there are several climaxes in the closing pages, and that the story dies hard, we are only saying that a sense of climax is not part of the German birthright. If we say that it is amusing to compare with Sienkiewicz's 'Fire and Sword,' in its utter absorption in the subject, the personal note which sounds—both through Von Scheffel's preface, and later, when he takes leave of his "dear reader," alluding to the headaches of composition—we add directly that a poet who did not pipe a personal note would be as unpleasant an anomaly as a new-fashioned grandmother.

Studies in Literature. By John Morley. Macmillan & Co.

THIS final volume of Mr. Morley's miscellanies adds the uncollected pieces of a literary character not included in the works issued some time ago. The subjects are partly special, such as reviews of Victor Hugo's 'Ninety-three' and Browning's 'The Ring and the Book'; partly of a general nature, such as the lecture on "Aphorisms" and on "The Study of Literature." Some of these papers have been already commented upon in these columns, but few of them stand out among the author's writings with any relief. The most striking by far is the keen, destructive criticism of Sir Henry Maine's 'Popular Government,' in which Mr. Morley expresses the danger even so acute a generalizer runs when he separates himself from the concrete conditions of politics. The burden of the criticism lies in its illustrations of the extent to which ideas, without a basis in fact, may lead to errors in the conception of what democracy as a political system is, and what are its historical sources and practical supports. For Sir Henry Maine's statements as well as for his theoretic views Mr. Morley shows what can only be called a polite contempt. A more interesting paper in its personal relations is that on "French Models," in which the author quotes the characterization of himself by a political opponent as "The Saint-Just of our Revolution," and proceeds to defend himself from the charge (not confined to this ludicrous instance) of following after "French Models." The whole is more piquant reading than usually is the case with him, but its more useful part consists in his discussion of the relation of history to politics, of ideas to reform in the doing, and in general of the scholar's equipment to the public man's necessities.

The correspondence of Mr. Macvey Napier gives him opportunity to make some remarks of a helpful nature on the duties and trials of an editor as he himself found them; and the concluding paper is his "Valedictory" on leaving the *Fortnightly*, in which also he found occasion to speak his mind about editorial problems, and in particular about signed and unsigned articles and the advance in the open discussion of public questions. Upon the former point he writes with his usual moderation, and shows the advantages and disadvantages incident to both anonymity and publicity. We will not refrain from quoting what he says upon a matter recently mooted among ourselves:

"The old talk of 'literary bravoes,' 'men in masks,' 'anonymous assassins,' and so forth, is out of date. Longer experience has only confirmed the present writer's opinion, expressed here from the very beginning: 'Everybody who knows the composition of any respectable journal in London, knows very well that the articles which those of our own way of thinking dislike most intensely, are written by men whom to call bravoes in any sense whatever would be simply monstrous.'"

The passage goes on admirably for a page, and we recommend it as a just expression of what an editor who on the whole inclines to signed articles in magazines (allowance being made for exceptional cases), thinks may be urged against reviewers. As a whole, the volume is more profitable for political than literary thought, but the love of letters and a wide acquaintance with them are diffused through all the essays, and the even style is admirably adapted to the sound matter, neither having any real brilliancy.

The Conflicts of Capital and Labor. By George Howell, M.P. Macmillan. 1890.

THE rate of modern progress is strikingly illustrated by this book. When the first edition was published, in 1878, trade unions, as Mr. Howell says, "were denounced in the press, on the platform, in the pulpit, and in Parliament; not occasionally, but constantly, persistently, and virulently." Now they are regarded with favor or with indifference; at all events, without apprehension. Society has other-bugbears wherewith to terrify itself today, and is, perhaps, even beginning to look on the trade unions as bulwarks of conservatism. Nor is this without good reason, for there are manifest indications that the communistic and socialistic elements find certain features in the present constitution of these bodies very much in the way of their revolutionary plans. The fact is, that the great unions have passed out of the militant stage, and have become to a great extent mutual-insurance companies, and as such have become possessed of large funds. They are thus in position to carry on war if necessary, but at the same time they have strong inducements to remain at peace.

The strength of these inducements appears from an examination of the balance sheets of the principal trade unions. In the year 1876 seventeen of these bodies, with a membership of 212,000, had an income of £384,000, and expended £338,000, having a surplus of £616,000. In 1889 sixteen unions, corresponding to a great extent with the seventeen previously referred to, and with but slightly increased membership, received £530,000, spent £378,000, and had a surplus of £556,000. Mr. Howell estimates the total number of workmen combined in trade unions at not less than 1,500,000, their annual income at £2,000,000, and their accumulated surplus at the same figure. This surplus, however, is maintained in a shape available for immediate use, being kept on deposit in the joint-stock and savings banks. It is obvious that such funds as these, while of great service for insurance against ordinary vicissitudes, would soon disappear in a general industrial war.

If we examine the history of the most prominent of the unions, the Amalgamated Society of Engineers, the progress of peaceful aims becomes more apparent. Taking the twenty years, 1869-89, we find that the number of members has risen from 33,000 to 60,000, the income from £82,000 to £183,000, the expenditure for sick benefit from £17,000 to £30,000, the superannuation allowance from £8,000 to £40,000, the accident benefit from £1,600 to £2,177, the funeral payments from £5,600 to £8,289. The donations to men out of work happen to be in 1869 nearly £60,000 and in 1889 only half that sum, but this item varies irregularly, and we can only say that it tends perhaps on the whole to decrease. It seems, therefore, that this society finds itself in the position of other life-insurance societies of long standing, obliged to provide for increased numbers of maturing claims. The regularity of its receipts is of increasing importance to its success, and it is obvious that a strike will not be hastily entered upon by men who see that their insurance may be imperilled by such action. Mr. Howell calls attention to a common and very serious misunderstanding of the meaning of "donations to men out of work," or "the out-of-work fund." This benefit is distinct from pay to men on strike, and has amounted in the case of the Amalgamated Engineers to the enormous total of £1,500,000 during the last thirty-nine years. It may be added, as of possible interest to the holders of policies in American life-insurance companies, that the total expense of this society for rent and salaries of officers is about £350 a year.

Although the temper of society has changed, Mr. Howell's book retains the acrimonious tone that was excusable, if not altogether justifiable, when the first edition appeared. He would have greatly improved it had he omitted the imprecatory passages, and especially had he refrained from his futile onslaught upon political economy. Of that science he knows little,

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and he allows himself to be infuriated by the hostile screeds of its false prophets. It is not so very certain that political economy has a message to be delivered to the trade unions, but if it has, it will confine it to their effect upon the production of wealth. We are not aware of the existence of any conclusive evidence upon this point; nor is it a simple matter to prove that these unions have altered the distribution of wealth. They may have increased the wages of some laborers at the expense of others; they may have in some places increased wages at the expense of rent; but that they have increased the wages of laborers as a class is at least unproved. What they have done that will be generally admitted to be laudable is to insure their members against some of the more grievous ills of poverty, the miseries, prospective and actual, of failure of work, of health, and of life, when there is none to help and nothing to alleviate. They have enabled laborers to secure the fair competitive value of their work in cases where the pressure of immediate necessity would have put them at a disadvantage in bargaining with their employers.

In spite of the intensity of Mr. Howell's feeling, we are impressed not only with his honesty of purpose, but with the general fairness and soundness of his views. We cannot admit the validity of his plea for those unionists who refuse to teach apprentices, on the ground that they would raise up competitors by so doing. It is the old fallacy that the introduction of machinery lessens the work to be done—a fallacy which Mr. Howell as a rule avoids. Nor can we agree with him as to the need of long apprenticeships. Adam Smith exploded this idea long since, and the increased intelligence of workmen renders it wholly inadmissible. But in most other respects we believe that Mr. Howell's views will commend themselves to all dispassionate readers, and his book will be accepted as the leading authority upon the subject of which it treats. We must except from this latter statement the introductory portion, which is devoted to the history of the earlier guilds—a subject requiring a broader scholarship than that of this author.

As to the matter of State aid, Mr. Howell's tone is thoroughly manly. All that he asks for workmen is liberty of combination for the purpose of securing for themselves the best terms that are economically possible. The idea of establishing a universal working day of eight hours by act of Parliament he repudiates with scorn, and so, it may be added, do those other leaders of the workmen who have done most for them in the past. Mr. Howell's book was published before the recent action of the Congress of Trade Unions, but he was evidently aware of the tendency to call in the aid of Government that has temporarily, at least, prevailed, and impressively predicts the evil results that will follow from it. Should this tendency continue, the unions will presently be involved in conflicts with one another, and the individual unions will suffer from dissension among their own members. Their history has been an interesting and not altogether inglorious one, and Mr. Howell has done well to preserve its details; but it may be doubted whether he would be grateful for the wish that he might be spared to carry the story far into the future. He has seen the rise of the trade unions, and has promoted it. It would be sad should it fall to him to chronicle their decline.

New York in the War of the Rebellion. By Frederick Phisterer. Albany: Weed, Parsons & Co.

THE statistical statements upon which Col. Phisterer has been engaged for many years have now appeared in this bulky volume. The author is already well known by his volume of 'Statistical Records' in the Scribner series of Campaigns of the Civil War, but the present work, although confined to the record of the State of New York, is much more elaborate. It gives the lists of members of the successive Legislatures from 1861 to 1865, and the war legislation passed by them; the cost to the State in lives and money; a list of all officers who died; a list of over two thousand engagements in which New York troops participated, and, for the important actions, a statement of each New York organization present, and the number of killed, wounded, and missing, and, finally, a brief history of each regiment and battery, with a list of the engagements in which it was present, and its losses in each. Much of the information which it contains is to be found in publications of the Federal Government, but it does not appear that anything is here repeated except what is necessary to make a complete record for the State of New York. On the other hand, there are some important omissions. For instance, a complete list is given of all general and staff officers and officers of the regular Army, Navy, and Marine Corps—all officers, in short, who were appointed by the President; but no names are given of regimental officers except the first commander. The reason alleged for this omission is that these names were printed in the report of the Adjutant-General of New York for 1867. But this is a document not easily accessible, and it is certainly more important to know the names of the commanding officers of regiments at successive periods of the war than to know the names of additional paymasters, boatswains, and sailmakers appointed by the President. In Whitelaw Reid's 'Ohio in the Civil War,' the names of all regimental officers are given as part of the regimental histories, and but very little additional space is required for them. What also seems to us a serious defect in a work of this kind is the lack of any general index. In the 'Records of the War of the Rebellion,' published by the War Department, an elaborate index accompanies each volume, and all students who have had occasion to consult these volumes know how invaluable the index is, and how nearly useless the work would be without it.

Notwithstanding these defects, Col. Phisterer's book will always remain the standard source of all statistical information relating to the part taken by the State of New York in the Civil War. It is a most honorable part, and it is well that it should, once and for all, be placed on record. New York furnished one-sixth of the Northern armies, and contributed one-eighth of the death-roll. With a population of less than 4,000,000 in 1860, and 764,000 males between the ages of eighteen and forty-five, this State sent to the war 400,000 individuals, of whom, in round numbers, 8,000 served in the militia, 16,000 in the Regular Army, 46,000 in the Navy and Marine Corps, 4,000 in the United States Colored Troops, and 15,000 in the United States Volunteers, leaving 311,000 in the State Volunteers. Of these latter, 48,066 died, about 13,000 of them killed outright, 7,000 from wounds, and 28,000 from sickness. Another 48,000 were wounded but recovered. The cost to the State in money, exclusive of amounts refunded by the Federal Government, was $160,000,000.

From such a mass of statistics many conclusions of much interest to the military reader can be drawn, but space enables us to mention only one or two of them. The figures just quoted show that, in war, sickness is more to be feared than the enemy. Among the 311,000 individuals there were killed in battle 4.17 per cent.; died of wounds, 2.32 per cent.; died of disease, 8.96 per cent. The total deaths were 15.45 per cent., and the percentage of those who were wounded but recovered was 15.62 per cent., making a total of 31.07 per cent., or nearly one man in every three, either killed, wounded, or died of disease.

We next observe that the men were well led, for the proportion killed in action and died of wounds was slightly greater among officers than among the men, the proportion for officers being 7.10 per cent. and for enlisted men 6.45 per cent.; but on the other hand the officer fared better in sickness than the enlisted man, for the proportion of deaths from disease was, among officers, 2.33 per cent., and among enlisted men 9 34 per cent.

The relative danger of service in the three arms is shown by the fact that while the proportion of deaths from disease was nearly the same in all three, yet in battle or from wounds the cavalry lost 3.13 per cent.; the artillery, 4.09 per cent.; the infantry, 6.89 per cent.—thus proving once more the well-known principle that the infantry bears the brunt of the battle. But if the cavalry does not lose heavily, it is seldom away from the enemy, and only for brief intervals does it cease skirmishing with him. For instance, the First New York Cavalry in forty-four months of constant service met the enemy in no less than 224 encounters, exclusive of picket duties, and passed only seven months without an engagement of some sort. There were 1,910 individuals in the regiment, and of these only 46 were killed or died of wounds, 122 died of disease or other causes, and 111 were wounded, but recovered. Seven-eighths of the regiment were uninjured. Their fellow-soldiers in the One Hundred and Twenty-first Infantry, in a service of equal duration, had a very different experience. This regiment participated in only 30 engagements large and small, but among them were Fredericksburg, Marye's Heights, Gettysburg, the Wilderness, Spotsylvania, Cold Harbor, Petersburg, Cedar Creek, and Appomattox. It numbered 1,380 members from first to last, and of these 226 were killed or died of wounds, 120 died of disease or other causes, and 454 more were wounded, but recovered. Only two-fifths escaped unhurt. The losses of this regiment were exceptional, but there were several others in which one man of every two was either killed, wounded, or died of disease.

Dressage méthodique du cheval de selle d'après les derniers renseignements de F. Baucher, recueillis par un de ses élèves. Paris: J. Rothschild. 1891. 8vo, pp. viii, 198.

To those to whom the name of Baucher suggests only the thought of the "High School," this volume may be something of a surprise, dealing as it does mainly with the way of training a horse so that he shall be "easy and pleasant to ride and regular in his gaits." It is true that directions are given for producing the fancy gaits which are the stock in trade of the average trainer, but we are expressly told that all these are entirely unnecessary. The author, concealing his titles of General and Baron under what no doubt seems to him worthy of greater respect—"one of the pupils" of the master whom he followed even in his last days, after the terrible accident which put an end for ever to his practical training of the animal that he so thoroughly understood—gives us in the title of the book one of the most striking characteristics of that master when he says that the notes from which the

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volume is formed are "after the last teachings" of Baucher. For though, or rather because, Baucher was so good a teacher, he was always a learner, and a learner from the animal that was his pupil. He was an original thinker, and in this book we have not only directions for doing certain things, but a real philosophy of training which, let it be said in passing, would apply as well to the training of a child as to that of a horse. The author could in no other way have borne so strong a testimony to the nature of the animal to whose study he had given so much time. Witness these statements: "Whenever we have succeeded in making one position very familiar to the horse, it is always at the expense of the facility with which he takes others." "Give the *position* which ought to produce the movement desired. Do not seek first the movement, which ought to be a consequence of the position." "Do not urge him; give the position and let the horse act for himself." "The horse understands at once the difference between your laying down the reins on his neck and your holding them by the ends. . . ." Again and again he impresses it upon his student to secure obedience by simply making it impossible for the horse to disobey. He warns him in the first stages of the education to be content with the smallest appearance of obedience, and to reward at once, and give rest for a while. The first lesson is to secure lightness of the mouth, but as soon as we feel that the jaw relaxes never so little, we are to yield our pressure. The effect of the steady eye of the trainer is insisted on. There is nothing finer or really more philosophical than this: "After each smallest punishment given, the rider, calm and entirely devoid of anger, is to *study what is going on in the mind of the horse.*" Again: "After each different movement has been obtained, let the animal rest for several minutes, if it be necessary, until the preceding movement no longer *resounds in his organism.*" As the training proceeds, "we must try to *feel* if he is *about to take* a false position." And he tells us that, after all, the means for obtaining any desired gait comes rather from the acquired instinct—if one may be allowed the expression—of the horseman than from any theory. No Englishman could ever have said this. It seems necessary to give these quotations in order to communicate the spirit of this most admirable book.

The author begins with definitions of the technical terms which his master was in the habit of using, and then goes on to the great principles which generated his whole practice. Briefly stated they are these: "Dominate in order to teach. Teach by rendering wrong action impossible. Then give back the horse to himself." How to do these things is set forth in the pages which follow, by means of all the beautiful accuracy of the French language, so that any one who rides may read: "Go very slowly if you wish to secure rapid progress." "Let him believe that he is his own master; that is the way to make him our slave." "Constant repetition and avoidance of irritation are the keys to success." How Baucher studied the smallest detail and its effect upon his pupil is seen in the way in which he speaks of the whip as "dispersing the forces" which it is the necessity of the rider to collect. It is only when the forces of the horse concentrate against the will of the rider that the whip is to come into play at all, and then instantly, sharply, and only once. The lashing of the tail, like a fault in a child, is to be turned to account to produce just the motion that is required. To transmute that wasted energy into a good forward movement is the art of the master. "All sudden action breeds uncertainty in the gait."

It is difficult to criticise this book because of its very fulness. It is overrunning with suggestions of the most valuable kind. The very phrases are picturesque, and seem to be alive; as, for instance, where we read of "imprisoning the horse between bit and spurs so as to render him, at the very first, incapable of resistance to our will." Baucher's great theory, that hands and legs must never be used together, is shown to be no cast-iron rule, for both at the beginning and at the end of the training it is allowable. The casual observer who supposes that every horse is at least symmetrical in his own action, will find room for some new ideas in relation to individual peculiarities also, and may thereafter produce perhaps better results in his amateur efforts, and may be led to take the blame on himself, and not to charge it to the horse, when he finds himself unable to secure a desired result.

In this work we have no carelessly thrown-together collection of suggestions, but a complete system of training in which every part subserves every other, and no stone is laid without being the intended foundation for some other division of the structure. When we add that the book is a pleasure to read because of its beautiful paper and typography, and that the tiny illustrations which close every chapter are simply delightful and of endless variety, we complete the praise which it deserves both as to matter and method. An excellent table of contents facilitates reference to any subject, even to the smallest details. For the benefit of those who do not read French with ease, it were much to be desired that we should have at the hands of some first-class workman a complete translation of the book; and with the present growing interest in riding, it would seem as if this would be, from the point of view of the publisher, no uncertain venture.

Le Ordalie: Studio di Storia del Diritto e Scienza del Diritto Comparato, da Federigo Patetta. Turin: Fratelli Bocca. 1890.

In the history of the evolution of the social organization and of the development of law, there are few subjects more interesting and instructive than the system of judgments of God—the judicial ordeals by which men have sought to determine disputed questions by referring them to the decision of the supernatural powers. In almost innumerable forms, and in almost all stages of civilization, save the very lowest and the highest, human reason has thus sought to release itself from responsibility and to relieve itself from doubt. It is seen to-day in the customs of many savage tribes, it is traced back to the most ancient records of the civilized races, its disappearance from European codes is a matter of but a few centuries, and every now and then some startling occurrence shows that it still lingers in popular superstition.

The activity of modern investigation has within a few years accumulated an immense mass of new material for the history of the custom. Researches into the primitive Oriental religions, the publication of mediæval documents, the reports of scientific explorations in the little known parts of the earth, have all contributed innumerable scattered facts; and Signore Patetta has done a service of no little magnitude to the student in assembling these facts with unwearied industry, and in coördinating and elucidating them in the true scientific spirit. Based as far as possible on the original sources, many of them still in MS., his work is a storehouse of knowledge, intelligently arranged and clearly set forth, and it is indispensable to the student of human institutions and development. The only fault we have to find with it is the absence of an analytical index, which would so greatly facilitate reference to the immense mass of information contained in its pages. No care in the systematic arrangement of the text supersedes the advantage to the hurried scholar of such a key to the treasury.

Recherches sur les Tremblements de terre. Par Jules Girard, Secrétaire-adjoint de la Société de Géographie. Paris: E. Leroux. 1890. 8vo, pp. 198.

It is somewhat difficult to conceive for what class of readers this work is intended. Its title—'Researches,' etc.—would indicate that the author was addressing an audience of scientific men to whom he wished to communicate some original investigations of his own. The book, however, contains no original investigations or observations by the author, and the accounts given of the original work of others are never full and are frequently inexact. Neither is the book quite suited to a popular audience, for a considerable space is devoted to minute details relating to the construction of seismographs (earthquake-recorders) which can have but little general interest.

The ten chapters of the volume treat of a great variety of subjects, from the traditions of the ancients regarding earthquakes to the destruction of buildings and to the dependence of shocks upon the situation of the planets in their orbits. The book is too small to allow this variety of topics to be adequately treated, and the necessary conciseness takes away much of the popular interest, while at the same time scientific precision has not been attained. For English-speaking readers the work of Milne ('Earthquakes and Volcanoes,' International Scientific Series, volume lv.), is much to be preferred, though M. Girard's volume may fill a place in France.

There is still room for a popular treatise on earthquakes and earthquake phenomena. The accounts of eyewitnesses of the great catastrophes are often most graphic, and exhibit human nature under strange conditions. The whole history of an earthquake country is well worth reciting. The scientific side of the matter, too, can be made as interesting as it is important. The problems to be considered relate to the proper registration of the circumstances of a particular earthquake, and also to the proper discussion of the statistics of earthquake phenomena within the limits of a region, a country, or a hemisphere. A suitable treatise would bring out and emphasize the fact that in both these matters there is a sharp line of demarcation between the old and the new. The invention of instruments really suited to the accurate registration of earthquakes was only made about a dozen years ago (by the European scientists in Japan and especially by Prof. Ewing). The examination of earthquake statistics in a scientific fashion was begun by Mallet and Perrey less than fifty years ago, and the methods are not yet in a satisfactory shape.

The difference between the old and new science of earthquakes—between the problem as treated by Humboldt in his 'Cosmos' and by Ewing in his various works—is of capital importance. It should be particularly emphasized in any popular treatise. In the book of M. Girard it seems to have been overlooked.

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Anne Bradstreet and Her Time. By Helen Campbell. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.

THE materials for a biography of Anne Bradstreet bear no proportion to the works which she left, and these latter are not of the sort out of which clever writers construct imaginary autobiographies. The author of this not brief life of the colonial poetess has been forced into using histories and records of the settlement in Massachusetts, and of the conditions, political and literary, of the mother-country, in order to make a book extraordinarily diffuse and miscellaneous even for such work as this. All that is known of "the grandmother of American poetry" or of her relatives is told, but besides this we have a view of the times in England and of the men and events of the Puritan colony, and, in fact, of whatever would serve to make a chapter; and as little of it is fresh, and there is no vivacity or effective handling in the rearrangement of the old material, the volume does not lighten the natural dulness that weighs on the subject by itself, and of which the reader is treated to a most liberal supply in the shape of long extracts from the "poems." The best part consists of the pages of Anne Bradstreet's prose meditations which she wrote out for her son, in which one discovers force of mind and a degree of literary faculty. Mrs. Campbell intimates that one reason of her writing this biography was to explain why it was that this country has not produced intellectual women of equal mark to the best of England; but we do not see that she succeeds at all in this, and it is difficult to find exactly where she has applied her mind to it.

The volume would have gained by a less ambitious treatment, by which its matter should have been restricted to the subject of it, and to such illustration of the poetical works that won the esteem of the early clergy as might be deemed readable by a patient man; as it is, there is much more verse than can be relished except by an antiquarian. It is perhaps impossible to depict the character of this striking woman with any real success, but it was not merciful to afflict a memory, already sufficiently burdened with dulness in its own right, with the added weight of a dull biography.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, G. The Great Taboo. Harper & Bros. 40 cents.
Bourget, P. Was It Love? Worthington Co.
Brown, D. W. The American Patent System. 25 cents.
Burgess, Prof. J. W. Political Science and Comparative Constitutional Law. 2 vols. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Doyle, E. Moody Moments: Poems. Ketcham & Doyle.
Emerson, P. H. Wild Life on a Tidal Water. Sampson Low, Marston & Co.
Eustace, Rev. J. M. Notes on Trigonometry and Logarithms. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.35.
Farmer, J. S. Slang and its Analogues, Past and Present. Vol. II. London: David Nutt.
Greswell, Rev. W. Geography of the Dominion of Canada and Newfoundland. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Gunton, G. Principles of Social Economics. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.75.
Halévy, L. Criquette. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Harper's Bazar for 1890. Vol. 23. Harper & Bros.
Harper's Monthly Magazine. Vols. 80 and 81. Harper & Bros.
Harper's Weekly for 1890. Vol. 34. Harper & Bros.
Harris, W. T. Hegel's Logic. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. $1.50.
Hudson, W. C. The Man with a Thumb. Cassell Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Hyde, D. Beside the Fire. London: David Nutt.
Ingersoll, R. G. Liberty in Literature. Truth Seeker Co. 50 cents.
Jameson, J. S. Story of the Rear Column of the Emin Pasha Expedition. U. S. Book Co.
Keynes, J. N. The Scope and Method of Political Economy. Macmillan & Co.
Kipling, Rudyard. The Light That Failed. John W. Lovell Co.
Kovalevsky, M. Modern Customs and Ancient Laws of Russia. London: David Nutt.
Longstaff, G. B. Studies in Statistics. London: Edward Stanford.
Lovell, Kate. Nature's Wonder-Workers. Cassell & Co. $1.50.
Lucas, C. P. A Historical Geography of the British Colonies. Vol. II. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $1.90.
Masson, D. The Collected Writings of Thomas De Quincey. Vol. XIV. Edinburgh: Adam & Charles Black. $1.25.
Meyer, Dr. H. Across East African Glaciers. Longmans, Green & Co. $10.50.
New Tariff. R. F. Downing & Co. $1.50.
Oliver, Dr. N. T. An Unconscious Crime. Chicago: Laird & Lee.
Page, S. The Chevalier of Pensieri-Vani. Boston: J. G. Cupples & Co. 50 cents.
The Year's Art, 1891. London: J. S. Virtue & Co.
Thomas, C. The Crystal Button. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Thwaites, R. The Colonies, 1492–1750. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.
Tolstoi, Count L. Church and State, and Other Essays. Boston: Benj. R. Tucker.
Traddles, Moses. Poems and Sketches. Cincinnati: Keating & Co.
Valdés, A. P. Scum. U. S. Book Co.
Ward, H. My Life with Stanley's Rear Guard. Chas. L. Webster & Co. 50 cents.
Ward, Mrs. Humphry. University Hall. Macmillan & Co. 30 cents.
Whiting, H. Physical Measurement. Part II. Cambridge: John Wilson & Son.
Whitman, S. Imperial Germany. Leipzig: Tauchnitz; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 50 cents.
Whitney, W. D. A Brief French Grammar. Henry Holt & Co. 65 cents.
Wickham, E. C. Horace. Vol. II. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co.
Wright, W. Aldis. The Cambridge Shakspere. Vol. I. Macmillan & Co. $3.
Yonge, Miss Charlotte M. Two Penniless Princesses. Macmillan & Co.

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